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ABSTRACT

The document was written for those who are planning new manpower services for offenders and ex-offenders or who are administering or employed in various institutional or community-based programs that prepare them to find jobs and acquire skills to raise their income. Part 1 establishes a framework for the guidelines presented in the rest of the volume and describes the role of manpower services, economic problems and job needs of offenders, and the development of institutional and community activities to help the offender establish himself in a lawful occupation. Part 2 offers information on how to (1) help an individual prepare himself for a job, (2) develop jobs, (3) see that former offenders are properly placed, and (4) create a stable relationship between the employer and the employee. Part 3 details program planning, administration, and evaluation. A final part briefly summarizes the elements of a model manpower services program. Appended are: samples of orientation material, an employment interview guide, job application forms, sample program planning charts, sample determination of staff requirements, and a criteria and rating scale for hiring ex-offenders. Also included is a 69-item selected bibliography. (Author/MS)

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JOB TRAINING AND PLACEMENT FOR OFFENDERS AND EX-OFFENDERS

By
PHYLLIS GROOM McCREARY
JOHN M. McCREARY

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April 1975

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FOREWORD

Young, unskilled, poorly educated, the typical offender has few marketable capabilities to offer potential employers. Unable to find or keep a job upon his release from prison, the offender often returns to crime—the only "business" he knows.

Breaking the cycle of recidivism is a difficult task, involving many complex contributing factors. One of these is employment potential. Effective programs for building relevant job skills do ease the offender's re-entry into society.

This document, one of the National Institute's Prescriptive Package series, offers criminal justice administrators and practitioners background information and operational guidelines for job placement and training programs. *Job Training and Placement for Offenders and Ex-Offenders* builds on the experience of a wide range of programs across the country. It presents both proven techniques and procedures that can be adopted by program directors and staff as well as some of the obstacles that arise in fashioning good programs. It encompasses both institutional and community-based programs—from pre-trial intervention to residential and non-residential post-custody programs—run by government agencies, business labor organizations and other groups.

Based on the programs surveyed, the report notes that current trends point toward community-based programs, since little evidence is available to confirm the success of institutional programs. But the researchers emphasize that community-based programs can succeed only if local needs and resources are carefully assessed and the program is designed to fit specific local conditions.

GERALD M. CAPLAN, *Director*
National Institute of Law Enforcement
and Criminal Justice

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PREFACE

This volume has been written primarily for those who are planning new manpower services for offenders and ex-offenders or who are currently administering or employed in programs that prepare them to find jobs and acquire skills to raise their income. It furnishes current thinking on how best to help them become employed in a job with enough income and status to satisfy their needs in a lawful way.

Part I establishes a framework for the guidelines presented in the rest of the volume. Chapter 1 outlines the role of manpower services for offenders, and describes the characteristics of offenders and their problems in terms of their economic position and their job needs. Chapter 2 summarizes the development of institutional and community activities whose purpose is to help the offender establish himself in a lawful occupation that can support him financially and provide him alternatives to his former way of life. The emphasis is on recent successful practices and the descriptive material supplements the "how to do it" information contained in Parts II and III.

Parts II and III are the "how to do it" or "methods" section of the volume. Part II offers information on how to (1) help an individual prepare himself for a job, (2) develop jobs, (3) see that former offenders are properly placed, and (4) create a stable relationship between the employer and the employee. They emphasize activities for community programs, since that is where the current interest lies. Part III deals with program planning, administration, and evaluation. Since these matters are common to all offender programs, they are written in that context, with reference to manpower aspects where possible.

Job Training and Placement covers institutional and community-based programs from pretrial intervention to residential post-custody programs. It covers programs sponsored or run by government, business, labor and other groups. With such a broad mandate, it was not possible to organize the available material by stage of intervention or type of structure. The authors, therefore, confined themselves to elements or problems that are common to most programs.

Programs have taken many forms and pursue many objectives. They are necessarily influenced and shaped by the organizations that sponsor them and that intervene at various stages of the criminal justice process. These organizations have different goals and diverse groups to deal with. Manpower services have emerged as a major focus in many of the community programs for the offender and the former offender. They vary from programs offering a free meal and transportation money to the local office of the State employment service to comprehensive programs that follow up and furnish services to an offender and to his family for months after job placement. Programs vary not only according to social theory but also with available money.

Some methods described in these chapters may be workable and appropriate in a particular jurisdiction. Some may not. Others may require extensive modification. Throughout, there is emphasis on the importance of adequate research of individual community needs and resources and the development of a program that fits the local situation.

The authors analyzed available reports of offender manpower service programs sponsored or funded by Federal agencies (notably the Manpower Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration of the Justice Department, and the U.S. Office of Education and Vocational Rehabilitation office of HEW) and business, labor, and public groups. The accumulating literature in the field was reviewed.

The authors visited programs in nearly a quarter of the states, interviewing program directors and staff, as well as offenders and ex-offenders. In addition, they interviewed administrators and policy makers in other areas and in the Federal Government. The authors wish to thank them all for contributing so freely of their time and energy.

A particular acknowledgement is due to those persons listed below, who so carefully and helpfully reviewed this manuscript. A number of them made contributions not only at the review stage but at every step along the way. We are deeply in their debt.

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October 1974

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PART I

MANPOWER SERVICES FOR OFFENDERS

INTRODUCTION

Individuals who have been in trouble with the law have a pressing need for manpower services. Very few have the skills and resources to support themselves adequately and most come from backgrounds that limit them in other ways. Moreover, employers commonly put an ex offender at the bottom of the hiring list, if at all. The offender has few alternatives to employment as a means of obtaining income in our society. What are the options? Return to crime? Welfare?

During the 1960's it became public policy to find ways to help offenders with their job problems as part of the rehabilitation process. Beginning in institutions, and now most visible in public and private projects outside of institutions, programs to help offenders and ex offenders find jobs or provide them with training have multiplied. They vary from programs offering a free meal and transportation money to the local office of the State employment service to comprehensive programs that follow up and furnish services to an offender and to his family for months after job placement. Programs vary not only according to social theory but also with available money. Many of them include elements of job orientation, vocational counseling, job development, and training.

Past as Prologue

Offender programs operate in a corrections framework that is the product of diverse and frequently conflicting trends, interests, and reforms of the past. Most of these were guided by a basic philosophy of punishment as the primary objective in dealing with criminals, and by the conclusion that the most effective method of dealing with transgressors is to lock them behind bars for a long time.

The pressures on corrections agencies are many. First, the citizen wants safety. He wants reduced crime. He is concerned about the cost of corrections. He is beginning to be appalled at the way prisoners live, as more information reaches him about conditions in prisons and jails and the ineffectiveness of incarceration as a means of rehabilitation. He is interested in rehabilitation of the offender, although no one knows quite what that consists of.

The problems are difficult, but many citizens are prepared to support more effective solutions. The dilemma is that while the public is beginning to recognize that the ultimate success of corrections depends on reintegrating the offender into the community and influencing him to refrain from breaking the law, the public's ambivalence about reform and the system's resistance to change seriously impede correctional progress.

The ideas of rehabilitation and treatment and resocialization or reintegration have become superimposed upon the old theory of punishment and control. This is reflected in the conflicts in aim and practices between police and prosecutors, the attorney general and local district attorneys, judges and correctional administrators.

The structure of probation and parole programs, institutions, policies and procedures that together make up corrections is complex and diverse. Corrections is plagued by overlapping jurisdiction, contradictory philosophy, and a hodge-podge of organizational structures.

A few jurisdictions have relatively small caseloads, an integrated system of institutions, well-trained staffs and a variety of experimental programs. Others consist of autonomous and antiquated city or county jails, a state training school for youth, and a large prison farm where convicts work under the surveillance of armed trusties. Each level of government typically acts independently of the others. The states usually have responsibility for prisons and parole programs, but probation is frequently tied to court administration as a county or municipal function. Counties do not have jurisdiction over the jails operated by cities and towns.

Dealing with disparate offender groups and consisting of a wide range of institutions that vary in their purpose and performance, the corrections "system" is less a coordinated rehabilitation mechanism than a number of discrete elements often in conflict. A system doesn't exist and yet people pass through as if it did.

New Directions

In the current view, crime and delinquency are symptoms of failure and disorganization in the community as well as in the offender himself.[1] The offender has had too little contact with the positive forces in the community that develop law-abiding conduct. Thus, both offender and the community become the focus of corrections activity. The concept is well stated in a paper presented at the American Assembly on Prisoners in America.[2]

> Rehabilitation, resocialization, and reintegration are today's objectives in corrections. Their theoretical base stems from the growing influence of psychology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis in the early part of the twentieth century. Criminal behavior was attributed chiefly to factors within the individual, and the concept of treatment rather than punishment revolutionized correctional practices of that time. Undiminished crime and recidivism rates, however, have brought growing dissatisfaction with the individualized treatment approach. An impressive accumulation of studies points to the conclusion that favorable change seldom, if ever, occurs in correctional institutions. Whatever changes do occur are rarely translated to the community where the offender's adjustment is ultimately tested. This recognition, coupled with theoretical and conceptual advances linking crime chiefly to social factors, is instrumental in the formulation of a new correctional philosophy . . . characterized by two main precepts.
>
> The first precept is that society, in addition to human attitudes, needs changing. Second, more emphasis should be placed on the offender's social and cultural milieu if we are to obtain any substantial relief from recidivism. Individual differences and individual responsibility will still remain important factors in corrections' response to criminal behavior, but they need to be considered within the setting of the offender's social group, the community, and the subcultural matrix. . . . Successful adjustment, therefore, will require personal reformation and conditions within the community that are conducive to an offender's reintegration into it. Fundamentally, this is a community task. Communities must assume part of the responsibility for the problems they generate.

Central to the recommendations of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals is that every effort should be made to avoid relieving the offender of the responsibility for making decisions and managing his own life, since the goal is to return him to society better able to cope on his own.

In our society regular employment is the accepted way of assuming responsibility for one's self. Employment not only affects an offender's ability to support himself without recourse to crime but employment is also a major influence on the nature of his associates, his use of leisure time, his conception of himself, and his expectations for the future. It is thus a major rehabilitative tool.

The objective of manpower services is to help an offender prepare himself to obtain and hold a job. In doing this, it is essential to organize arrangements and linkages between manpower services, institutions, and employers. Now they are minimal in most places, and if there is a rehabilitation plan for a person in prison, that plan may or may not be carried on after he leaves. We are just beginning to act on the recognition that what happens in the prison affects what happens in the parole stage, and what happens on parole affects whether or not the offender turns up before an arresting officer again, and so on.

[1] *Report on Corrections*, National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals, Washington, D.C., January 23, 1973, p. 3.

[2] Edith Elizabeth Flynn, "Jails and Criminal Justice." In *Prisoners in America*, edited by Lloyd E. Ohlin. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973, p. 53.

CHAPTER 1. MANPOWER SERVICES AND THEIR CLIENTS

A. The Role of Manpower Services

In the kind of framework described in the Introduction, which postulates both individual and community responsibility, the first task of a manpower delivery system is to discover what approaches are most likely to meet the needs of the largest number and to devise measures for those who have special personal problems or whose background puts them at a special disadvantage.

There are two levels at which action is necessary. *At the community level*, barriers to employment that militate against the poor and uneducated in general must be overcome, i.e., more realistic education requirements for jobs must be negotiated. (The high school diploma is used as a screening device by many employers for jobs that do not require a high school education.) The structural framework must be present, i.e., the community must have jobs to fill, training to give, and willingness to offer them to offenders and ex offenders. These conditions can be met only by changes in society, as discussed earlier, not by manpower programs for the individual.

At the individual level, the offender must overcome his personal handicaps. Recently developed pretrial and post-custody job placement and training programs are aimed at improving an offender's employability. They are designed to help the young, the unemployed, and the unskilled (who are also in many cases members of a minority group) who characteristically comprise the bulk of the official arrest statistics. These kinds of programs offer an almost infinite number of advantages. They emphasize crime prevention, reduce the need for incarceration, interrupt the development of delinquent careers, and reduce unemployment. It is with these programs that the following chapters are primarily concerned.

The situation of offenders at liberty within the community (parolees, probationers, and persons on work release) is like that of citizens generally seeking access to job placement and training services. This, of course, does not ban special services for such offenders, but it is equally valid to integrate them into general vocational, educational, and counseling programs in the community.

A community based manpower program for offenders requires the acceptance of certain assumptions. In attempting to help the offender find a job, and training if necessary, the assumptions are (1) that he has the capability for regular employment but (2) is unfamiliar and inexperienced in certain behavior and skills demanded of him, in other words that behavioral training is needed rather than therapy.

A third major assumption is that if the offender learns to handle himself in the community, while he is under corrections controls, he will be able to do so after the control is lifted. Those concerned with community based manpower services for offenders should explore these and other assumptions behind their plan to be sure that their goals reflect reality.

In pursuing a standard of employment assistance for every offender who needs it, program planners will be faced with many questions, including

—How much supportive service is necessary
—Should supportive services be furnished in-house or contracted out
—How good a job ("dead end," job mobility, career ladder)
—Whom to train and what kind of training should be given
—When and how much training in institutions.

A comprehensive manpower service program includes:

—Assessment of skills and abilities of the client
—Training in job hunting and in acquiring acceptable work attitudes
—Job training and basic education if necessary
—Job development and job placement
—Follow up with employee and employer after placement
—Other supportive services such as medical care or legal aid.

B. The Client

The wide variations in the characteristics of offenders and where they land in the corrections system have important implications for planning rehabilita-

tive programs. State institution inmates vary from those of the average incarcerated in Federal institutions—State inmates usually are younger, and more likely to be school dropouts. Federal inmates are 8-10 years older, with more education and training prior to incarceration.

More than twice the number incarcerated are living in the community as parolees or probationers. The characteristics and attitudes of offenders and ex offenders bear directly on the kinds of jobs and supportive services that are needed.

Law breakers differ markedly in their commitment to crime, their demographic characteristics and their resources for self-support. While the offender population is far from homogeneous, it is nevertheless accurate to say that the typical offender is a young, undereducated man from a minority background, likely to come from a broken home, with no job and with little in the way of financial resources. He has a record of failure in school, employment and other pursuits, even crime.

In general, the married, better educated older man with a good employment record and no previous record of arrest, who is committed for a crime of violence is most likely to readjust to a law-abiding life. The least likely to succeed is the young, single, narcotics addict with poor education and no significant work experience.

Employment problems vary with age, number of prior commitments, with education and with earlier employment success. Juveniles, long termers, addicts, older offenders, women and non-English speaking groups each have unique problems that must be understood and taken account of in planning job placement and training programs for offenders and in evaluating their effectiveness. No single program or approach can succeed for everyone.

Age. The most significant characteristic of offenders is their youth. Forty percent of those arrested are under 21. More burglaries, larcenies, and auto thefts are committed by youths 15–17 years of age than by any other group.[3]

A close relationship exists between the age at which these types of felony are most often committed and the age at which persons in our society first try to enter legitimate income-producing activities. In the middle of their teen years boys reach physical maturity, are permitted to leave school, and are likely to seek such symbols of independence as automobiles and spending money. It is at this age, when they are least prepared to acquire these items by legitimate means, that they most often engage in the simple felonies directly addressed to procuring money or to getting things they want most—notably automobiles. Although auto theft, burglary, and larceny are committed by persons at later ages, this type of offense is clearly a phenomenon most characteristcis of adolescence. Most of those who enter into these offenses during adolescence cease such activity thereafter.

Sex. Most of the attention focussed on offenders has been directed toward men, who comprise 95 percent of the prison population. According to 1970 census, there were 16,343 women in the nation's correctional institutions, 854 in two Federal reformatories, 7,684 in 28 state institutions, and 3,500 in county and municipal jails.

However, in 1971 more than one million women were arrested, about 15 percent of the total arrests—compared with about 10 percent in 1960. In that decade, arrests of women increased 202 percent, compared with a 75 percent increase for men. Arrests of females under 18 years of age increased 256 percent.

Although verification is not possible because little age, education, prior employment, and socio-economic status data are available, we can roughly picture a typical woman offender.

One study of county jails in Pennsylvania found the average woman inmate to be charged with a minor nonviolent offense; too poor to raise minimal bail or pay minor fines; and incarcerated for 30 days or less awaiting trial.

In metropolitan areas, the women were usually members of a minority group, and if employed usually worked at low-paid, low-skilled work. Approximately 80 percent of the women studied had children (although not necessarily living with them at the time

[3] When committing such crimes, male adolescents are aware that they run the risk of an unfavorable reaction from many adults and from anticriminal adolescents. They may risk disgrace at school, shame at home, alienation from girls; and if they already are working, they risk losing their jobs. It is probable that the growing awareness of these risks forms a major basis for the predominantly crime-free mature life that most people pursue, even though many have been involved in some delinquency in the course of growing up. This attitude also accounts for the disproportionate extent to which crime is a phenomenon of those who are very young, and especially is it attributable to those youths who are least successful in school, at work, or in their family relationships. These are the persons who have least "stake in conformity," and hence risk least when engaging in crime.

Source: Jackson Toby, "Social Disorganization and Stake in Conformity: Complementary Factors in the Predatory Behavior of Young Hoodlums," Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science, 48, No. 1 (May-June 1957), pp. 12–17.

of arrest) and had to support themselves and their children or receive welfare payments.[4]

A Women's Bureau study of women in the two Federal reformatories shows a similiar picture—a relatively young, poor, urban black woman who was responsible for her children's and her own economic support with a low-paying, low-skilled job, or on welfare. About 60 percent of the women surveyed scored below the 8th grade level; only 3 percent tested scoring at or above the 12th grade level. On the other hand, two-thirds of these women had normal or higher intelligence measured on intelligence tests.[5]

Education. Most prisoners have completed less than nine grades of school. The actual tested school achievement level of inmates is at the 5th or 6th grade, usually a couple of grades below their years of schooling recorded. It is clear that most prisoners would be better prepared for today's job market and for other responsibilities of noncriminal life if they had more education. Tests show that the intelligence of persons in prison does not differ markedly from those outside. It is argued that most of their school retardation comes from lack of motivation to perform well in school rather than to intelligence below the level needed to progress at a normal rate. Their lack of past educational effort generally reflects the interruption of school by delinquent and criminal behavior followed by incarceration.

Marital Status. At time of release from prison a third of releasees are married, half are single, and the rest are divorced or widowed. Changes in marital status have a significant effect on employment in the population in general (at the time a man marries, he tends to accept financial responsibility for himself and his family).

Economic Status. Very few offenders in institutions have had a regular work history. Poor education and limited opportunities are reflected in high unemployment, low wages, intermittent and low status work patterns, and welfare. A survey of Federal releasees found that more than half had worked in unskilled or service jobs prior to commitment, and more than 40 percent returned to such jobs upon release. According to data from the 1960 census, over 30 percent of State and Federal inmates in April 1960 had been laborers, whereas only 10 percent of the male civilian labor force as a whole were laborers. Furthermore, this occupational group had an unemployment rate of over 10 percent, highest of any group.

More recent data on occupations of offenders will be available from a survey to be released by the Justice Department late in 1974.

The offender population is a part of a much larger group with severe employment problems. Their removal from the labor market by incarceration, with its concomitant transitional difficulties, makes these problems even worse.

Ninety percent of the men in state prisons have been convicted of some form of stealing. Larceny and burglary occur more frequently than any other felonies and are among the most recidivistic crimes. Most arrests for larceny and burglary occur during adolescence. Forgery, fraud and embezzlement are the only property felonies that have a median age at arrest beyond early youth.

Recidivism and Employment. Age, type of offense, and prior criminality are major predictors of recidivism. Offenses most likely to be repeated are those of an economic nonviolent nature. The youthful property offender is most likely to "reenter the system" upon release but most people who are convicted once do not recidivate, particularly if they are men over 45.

Accurate recidivism statistics are not available because of differing definitions and lack of record-keeping. But it is clear that most recidivism occurs shortly after an inmate is released. Within 5 years from 30 to 75 percent of released prisoners are returned to custody. (This range includes the estimates of most students of the subject.)

As Glaser puts it, "What becomes increasingly clear from all of the case studies and statistics on criminal careers is that. . . . Almost all criminals follow a zigzag path. They go from noncrime to crime and to noncrime again. . . . Sometimes this sequence is repeated many times, but sometimes they revert to crime only once; sometimes these shifts are for a long duration or even permanent and sometimes they are shortlived."[6]

Glazer offers significant data on the relationship between vocational training, post release employment, and recidivism. He concludes that the offender's lack of education and low vocational skills undoubtedly contribute to his difficulties in making a go of it in the community. The typical offender has been employed sporadically (in jobs with little or no

[4] *Report of Correctional Task Force* of Office of Training Program Administration, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 1973, pp. 122–125.

[5] Ibid.

[6] Daniel Glaser, *The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System*, New York: The Bobbs Merrill Co., Inc. 1964, p. 85.

career potential). Forty-six percent of the offenders included in Glaser's study had been employed less than 50 percent of the time in the 2 years prior to incarceration.[7]

Pownall and Evans analyzed the employment-recidivism picture further and have reached similar conclusions. They stress the inverse relationship and the importance of steady employment in preventing a return to criminal behavior. The longest work experience prior to incarceration was less than 2 years for 78 percent of the releasees included in Pownall's study. Fifty-six percent were unemployed or had been employed less than 6 months in the job held just prior to commitment. But the longer a man had been employed before being incarcerated, the more likely he was to hold a job upon his release.[8]

Glaser says that those who revert to crime apparently do so largely because they have difficulty in procuring adequate noncriminal employment, because they have inadequate economic resources at release, and because they continue social contacts with persons of criminal background. Furthermore, the releasees have limited confidence in their ability to achieve their economic goals legitimately. This lack of confidence is warranted by their past failures and by their continuing difficulties, which reflect their lack of the skills and the experience required to attain legitimately the occupations and standards of living to which they aspire.[9]

Wellford argues that recidivism and employment are probably highly correlated because of their relationship to other truly explanatory variables; they do not cause each other, they simply co-vary.[10] Since the skill level of a man coming out of prison has not usually improved, his job opportunity is basically unchanged from before when he "decided" to commit a crime rather than take a menial straight job. His decision to go straight and become employed must be based not on his desire for and ability to find unskilled employment, but on other factors that have moved him away from crime as a way of accomplishing certain goals. Whether this be maturation, the proverbial "getting tired of hustling," or the influence of family, it affects both employment and criminal behavior. The decision causes the correlation. Wellford concludes that success in reducing recidivism will be based on understanding that decision and not on the ways we can find to increase jobs for ex offenders. Whatever the outcome of the research in this area, it does not reduce the need for employment of ex offenders, for our society offers few other alternatives for legitimate income.

[7] Ibid., p. 231.

[8] George A. Pownall, *Employment Problems of Released Prisoners*, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, 1969.

[9] "Nevertheless, most ex criminals eventually fix upon a way of life in which they are not subject to arrest for felonies, for only such a fact could account for the low median age of persons arrested for a felony, in view of the low probability that a person could indefinitely repeat the gamble involved in most felonies without being caught." Glaser, *The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System*, p. 490.

[10] Charles Wellford, "Manpower and Recidivism," *Proceedings: The National Workshop of Corrections and Parole Administration*, Feb. 20–23, 1972, New Orleans, La., American Correctional Association, pp. 113–120.

C. Delivery of Manpower Services

When one considers the poor match between offender economic status and job skills on the one hand and the exigencies of the job market and restrictions on hiring offenders or ex offenders on the other, the need for manpower services is obvious.

Manpower services can help an offender increase his employability through

—Evaluation of aptitudes and abilities
—Work orientation, work discipline
—Skill training
—Basic education
—Supportive services
—Job development
—Placement
—Follow up

The payoff of any manpower service is placement in a job. A problem often reported in the evaluation of offender-employment efforts is a lack of success due to a failure to provide comprehensive job related services. The difficulty is knowing just how many and what type of services are required. Furthermore, the offender may be provided everything except the one thing he requires most, stable and rewarding employment. Since most offenders tend to be individuals with low job skills, limited worked experience, and perhaps poor work attitudes, job goals must be rather limited initially if they are to be realistic and are to apply to a large number of offenders. For those with the potential, skill levels must be significantly increased and high paying jobs with significant advancement opportunities sought.

As the high unemployment rate of offenders indicates, follow-through to the placement stage is often lacking. Many offenders cannot get jobs on their own.

When placements are made, they commonly entail low-paying jobs offering little other inducement to the offender. Only 5 to 10 percent of ex prisoners get help from the local employment service office in finding their first job, and almost none turn to it later in their careers. Less than a fourth of those who find jobs apply the work experience or training acquired in prison.[11]

[11] Pownall, *Employment Problems of Released Prisoners*, p. 115.

Placement efforts of recent experimental programs will be summarized in the next chapter. They vary from programs in which the client is expected to develop his sense of responsibility by learning the search procedures for finding his own job, to those programs with job developers who furnish clients with lists of openings and make appointments for interviews, to which they may even accompany the client.

CHAPTER 2. WHERE PROGRAMS STAND TODAY

In the past when an individual broke the law there were few options; he could be incarcerated or let go, with or without supervision. Today corrections reform pursues many alternatives to prison. We have begun the decriminalization of certain activities such as drunkenness and prostitution that constitute morally objectionable private behavior. We are turning over to medical and social welfare specialists the care of drug addicted and mentally disturbed individuals. We are deliberately diverting many offenders from prison to community programs and at the same time offering community programs to those who have already served in prison and who need assistance in readjusting to the outside world. Manpower services have emerged as a major focus in many of the community programs for the offender and the former offender.

Programs have taken many forms and pursue many objectives. They are necessarily influenced and shaped by the organizations that sponsor them and that intervene at various stages. These organizations have different goals and diverse groups to deal with.[1] The following pages summarize the major trends of their activities, with emphasis on recent innovative practices.

A. Vocational Training in Institutions

General. Formal systems of vocational training began to expand in the United States in the late nineteenth century as a response not only to the educational needs of a rapidly growing high school population but also to industrial demand for skilled workers not being met through apprenticeship or immigration. Vocational training in correctional institutions began with the opening of the Elmira Reformatory in 1876.

Vocational training was designed, if not as a substitute for apprenticeship, at least with the same types of crafts or trades in mind. Modern industrial and service jobs are so different from the traditional crafts and trades that it is not surprising that preemployment classroom training has not been the most successful means of preparing individuals for work.

Recognition that a large proportion of inmates is unskilled has provided the impetus for vocational training in prisons, even though there are serious obstacles in the way of success.

Extent and Content. Unfortunately, most estimates of the extent of training lump together formal training coures and informal on-the-job training in prison industries. The latter frequently lack variety and relevance, and while some inmates undoubtedly benefit from the training aspects of their prison employment, it is difficult to assess the effect of such informal training in the aggregate.

The scope of vocational training programs varies, depending on the size and financial capability of the correctional system. The Federal Bureau of Prisons reported that in fiscal 1973 over 5,000 inmates completed vocational training. According to Pownall, training programs in Federal prisons are concentrated in the institutions that have the youngest inmates.[2]

A 1972 survey of vocational training in correctional institutions recorded 12,868 trainees enrolled in 855 vocational education programs in state and Federal institutions.[3] This represents less than 10 percent of the 130,800 population of the responding institutions. More than half of the institutions offered five or fewer vocational programs. The most common programs, representing 53 percent of the programs reported, were: auto mechanics, arc and acetylene welding, machine shop, masonry, radio and TV repair, auto body repair, carpentry, barbering, baking

[1] For example, probationers have different characteristics from parolees. Usually probationers are younger, this is more likely to be their first experience with the law, and they have not had the disruptive experience of prison.

[2] Pownall, *Employment Problems of Released Prisoners*, p. 12.

[3] Donald Richard Neff, "Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations of Vocational Education in State and Federal Adult Correctional Institutions in the United States" (from a doctoral research study, August, 1972).

There were 202 institutions that responded. This number represents 77.6 percent of those institutions which were contacted (Federal, state and local with over 100 male inmates and all those housing women). Texas and South Carolina provided division-wide responses that included all of the correctional institutions' vocational education programs for their respective states.

and cooking, architectural and mechanical drafting, air conditioning and refrigeration, and small engine repair.

Evaluation of vocational training in institutions has been confined for the most part to informal observation, but Far West Laboratory recently sifted reports on 1,000 programs and came up with only 66 that the staff considered were effective enough to be described in their Sourcebook.[4] They found that a traditional mixture of classroom chalk-and-talk and shop-area experience in manipulating tools of the trade are the most common methods used in institutional training. Some demonstration and pilot programs are using innovative approaches, as will be discussed later.

Frequently, courses are tied to prison maintenance, either because it is necessary in order to run the institution, or because it is the only feasible way to obtain the materials and experience needed for the course. The danger is that priorities may become confused as the administration of the institution begins to view the course as existing primarily to provide food services, barbering, upholstery of prison furniture, or repair of institution vehicles.[5] Often a reverse process takes place, with institutional maintenance courses evolving into vocational training programs, which may or may not have relevance to the job market the offender will face or to his training preferences.

Enrollment in a single vocational program ranged from one trainee to 102 trainees, according to the 1972 survey. Sixty-eight percent had 6 hours or more instruction time a day. Seventeen percent had between 3 and 4 hours of instruction time. Over half of the vocational programs included 1 to 2 hours of related instruction a day in such matters as theory or related mathematics.

The most common length of vocational programs was 1 year, the next common was 6 months. Three-fourths of the programs were of the open entry/open exit type.

The teacher-trainee ratio was one teacher for every 12 trainees. There were 1,044 civilian teachers and 134 inmate teachers. Over 80 percent of the civilian teachers held vocational teaching certificates from their state.

Vocational education personnel had some responsibility for the selection and screening of the trainee for vocational programs in 93 percent of the responding institutions.

Seventy-four or 40 percent of the 185 institutions included in the survey had funds budgeted specifically for vocational education. Sixty-four percent of all the vocational programs were sponsored directly by the institution. Thirty-six percent of the programs were funded by outside sources.

A little more than half of the institutions with programs reported some form of job placement connected with their vocational education programs. This is in most cases extremely informal and likely to be haphazard,[6] as will be discussed later in this chapter.

Criticism of Inmate Training. Criticism of inmate vocational training has been harsh. "In isolated settings, divorced from labor markets, working with second-rate materials and a highly disadvantaged clientele, vocational training alone seems to have minimal impact." [7] On the other hand, Wellford does say, ". . . for the minority who gain skills in prison at which they can find a post-release vocation, prison work experience and training is a major rehabilitative influence." [8]

A member of the Bureau of Prisons staff says that it is becoming increasingly difficult to provide meaningful vocational and industrial education inside a correctional facility.[9] She confirms that much of the training, whether under the guise of on the job training in institutional maintenance or prison industries, or whether in vocational training shops and in related classroom instruction, uses obsolete equipment and production standards that are much lower than those in private industry. As a result, she concludes that most prison occupational training programs have been ineffective in terms of preparation for specific post release employment.

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[4] *A Guide to Correctional Vocational Training: The First National Sourcebook*, July 1973, produced by New England Resource Center for Occupational Education, Newton, Massachusetts, and Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, California.

[5] The continual struggle to keep training schedules from being washed away by production needs is reminiscent of the same struggle recounted by training directors in industry.

[6] In one state institution for women visited for the research on this project, the two vocational counselors had no idea how many women had a job when they left the institution and no statistics were available. Interviews with corrections authorities indicate that this lack of basic information is common.

[7] Robert Taggart III, *The Prison of Unemployment, Manpower Programs for Offenders*, Policy Studies in Employment and Welfare #14, Gen'l. ed.: Sar A. Levitan and Garth L. Mangum, Baltimore and London: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1972, p. 49.

[8] Wellford, "Manpower and Recidivism," pp. 117–120.

[9] Sylvia G. McCollum, *The Potential of New Educational Delivery Systems for Correctional Treatment*, A Correctional Education Handbook, April 1973, pp. 7–8.

"In too many cases, these traditional training programs bear no relationship to the actual vocational interests or aptitudes of the inmate/students. If an inmate is faced with a limited number of choices, he frequently 'selects' what's available, quite apart from personal interests. Many institutions offer long waiting lists for future classes as supporting evidence of inmate interest in traditional vocational training areas. All too often, this is evidence, not of popularity or relevance of the course, but rather of the reality that there are no alternatives open to the prisoner. It is highly unlikely that the individual preferences, aspirations, and competency levels of 500 individuals, who who happen to share a common address, the correctional facility, can be met by four or five or even 10 vocational and industrial occupational educational areas." [10]

Recent Developments. In the early 1960's much more comprehensive employment-oriented training and manpower services than the traditional vocational training offered were introduced through the implementation of the Manpower Development and Training Act.[11] Such training has had significant impact on the quantity and quality of inmate training, and has provided some useful research on effective techniques. Inmates receive job training, remedial and basic education, vocational and personal-social counseling services, job development and placement services, and follow up services.

In 1964–65, the first experimental and demonstration MDT projects were undertaken at Rikers Island in New York, the Youth Center at Lorton, Va., Project First Chance in South Carolina, and the Draper Institution in Elmore, Ala., to test the feasibility of MDT job training in prisons and measure its carryover to the community. The ensuing programs demonstrated the feasibility of broad-scale extension and administration of inmate training.

During the fiscal year 1971, the prison inmate program furnished vocational training to over 4,500 inmates in 48 projects in such traditional skills as welding, auto body repair, drafting, and upholstering, auto mechanics, as well as in more recent additions such as electronics, office machine repair, offset press, computer programming, animal training, and deep sea diving.

One of the first, if not the first, training facilities for inmates located "outside-the-walls" and intended to serve ex offenders and community enrollees as well as inmates began training the first class of inmates in the new training facility at Holmesburg prison in Philadelphia in March 1974.

The training offered covers welding, appliance repair and auto repair. All equipment in the facility and all techniques are completely up to date. The instructional portion of the training is under the direction of the Philadelphia School Board through and by HEW regulations.

The training program is closely coordinated with the State ex offenders placement program with five employment service staff people detailed to work under the direction of the Superintendent of Prisons.

Innovative techniques such as programmed learning and incentives are used in many places. However, there have been problems with types of programs being offered. Pieczenik reports that training was offered in skills in high demand in the community but for which there was fierce competition for the openings available (e.g., welding, auto mechanics, auto-body repair). Training in certain areas was sometimes considered undesirable by other disadvantaged groups for reasons of working conditions and salary (e.g., hospital and restaurant work). A strong educational background was needed for some training (e.g., refrigeration repair, radio and TV repair). Low starting salaries and high cost of tools was a problem in others (e.g., barbering). Some training had no market (e.g., technical writing).[12]

One of the Labor Department funded experimental programs that bears watching currently is Mutual Agreement Programming (MAP), an American Correctioinal Association Project. Its basis is a contract between inmate, institution, and parole board, that includes a definite parole date contingent upon the completion of mutually agreed-upon rehabilitation goals, including job training in most cases. The inmate must complete the program objectives and prepare for release and employment. However, MAP also places responsibility on others in the system. Parole board members must formulate definite criteria for parole and inmate goals. Corrections per-

[10] Ibid., p. 8.

[11] In December 1973, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) replaced the Federal manpower programs authorized by the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Economic Opportunity Act and similar legislation or fund apportionment. CETA authorizes grants of Federal funds to state and major counties and cities that plan and operate their own programs and control allocation of the grant.

[12] Roberta Rovner-Pieczenik, of Criminal Justice Research, Inc., *A Review of Manpower R & D Projects in the Correctional Field (1963–1973)*, Manpower Research Monograph No. 28, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973, pp. 37–50.

sonnel must provide programs. Staff are responsible and accountable for individual program components. Community agencies coordinate their services with those of corrections.

MAP is, then, a vehicle for coordination, responsibility and accountability among correctional agencies and community agencies. It is designed to facilitate rehabilitation, and improve the coordination of correctional administrators and parole authorities in planning meaningful training and placement for criminal offenders, one of the most needed reforms in corrections. Projects have been in effect in Arizona, California, and Wisconsin. Maryland plans to institute the MAP program throughout the State in 1974 and 10 other states are expected to follow by the end of the year.

B. Placement from Institutions

More than 100,000 persons leave Federal and state prisons each year. Special personnel to serve their placement needs are pitifully few. As of July, 1972, the Federal Bureau of Prisons employed 33 community program officers to assist some 13,000 releasees a year from 40 institutions. Program officers are responsible for knowing about labor market conditions in their area, maintaining liaison with state employment offices, and placing former inmates in jobs. With the large number of institutions and their geographical dispersion, very little actual service is available to the offender.[13] Of 153 inmates released in July 1972, from five institutions, 130 said they did not know that job placement services were offered by the community program officers.

New York parole officers helped obtain only 506 jobs in 1970, although over 16,000 people were on parole from that state's institutions sometime during the year, of whom 5,680 were employed full time.[14] Only a handful of state parole-probation offices have employment specialists on their staff.

A successful placement program worth examining is that of seven key public agencies in Louisville, Kentucky, which have pooled their efforts to find jobs for ex offenders into a central office. In its first year of operation the Clearinghouse provided employment services to more than 1,000 former prisoners; it found new or better jobs for 636 people, who start at an average pay rate of more than $2.50 an hour. It made nearly 2,000 job referrals, individually counseled hundreds on special employment problems such as bonding or licensing, placed two dozen in training programs, and—in its secondary mission—referred 247 ex prisoners to legal or mental health services and sources of emergency funds or temporary lodging. All prisoners in the prerelease stage are told of the Clearinghouse's capabilities. A summary of how it operates is found in Chapter 4.

Unless it has roots in the community with job placement capability, an inmate training program cannot be a useful rehabilitative tool. The Maryland Correctional Training Center program is an example of how various organizations can pool their resources to develop an effective program.[15] Baltimore AFL-CIO union members provide, with corporate assistance, nine weeks of job training in the prison for first offenders, age 16–26. Bethlehem Steel Co. and Maryland Drydock Co. have provided over $70,000 in training equipment and employed many of the welding graduates. The Baltimore Model Cities Agency has provided counseling and financial support for the project. One indication of the results of this cooperation is that of 146 inmates who completed training and left prison only 12 percent have returned.

C. Work Release and Prerelease

Work Release. Work release is one of the oldest and most successful programs designed to ease transition to civilian life. Inmates work at paid employment in the community, returning to confinement during nonwork hours. Most often it is the young adult man who is the target of the program.

The first work release legislation was enacted in Wisconsin in 1913. Commonly known as "The Huber Law," this statute permits a judge sentencing an offender to county jail to authorize release of the offender during normal working hours to return to his past employment or to work on a job found for him by the sheriff. The law authorizes the sheriff to collect the offender's wages, from which the county is reimbursed for the offender's board and other expenses in jail. The releasee can authorize the sheriff to use any additional wages toward the support of the offender's family or to pay debts. Any balance at the time of final release is turned over to the offender.

[13] On the other hand, *Report to the Congress: Rehabilitating Inmates of Federal Prisons: Special Programs Help, But Not Enough*, the Comptroller General of the United States, Nov. 6, 1973, says that of a sample of 68 persons with jobs who were released in 1972, only 9 had obtained employment through Bureau of Prisons assistance programs (p. 34).

[14] Tom Wicker, New York Times, March 8, 1974, p. 33.

[15] For further information, contact the Superintendent of the Maryland Correctional Training Center, Hagerstown, Md. 21740.

No further legislation was enacted until the mid-50's when Virginia and North Carolina passed work release laws. Since then 41 other states, the District of Columbia, and the Federal government have authorized work release. Table 1 shows the number on work release in each state in 1971.

Prerelease Centers. Another of the most important advances in the rehabilitation of prisoners has been the establishment of centers for prerelease guidance in the large urban areas, from which most prisoners come and to which they return. These centers provide an intermediate condition between prison and complete parole or discharge. Increasingly they also are used as an alternative to prison or probation.

The first Federal agencies of this type were known as "prerelease guidance centers." They were opened in Chicago, Los Angeles, and New York in 1961. A center that opened in Detroit about a year later is operated jointly with the Michigan Department of Corrections and holds both state and Federal young adult offenders. Similar centers have since been established in Kansas City, Washington, D.C., and elsewhere.[16]

Each center has a director, who has considerable correctional casework experience, a caseworker, one to three general purpose staff known as "correctional counselors," and a specialist in employment counseling. Additional part-time employees are recruited from among local graduate students in appropriate disciplines. The centers originally had a high ratio of staff to inmates, but experience has shown that fewer are necessary and now the prevailing ratio is one employee to every six inmates.

When a youth arrives at a center, he is restricted to it for about 2 days. He arrives at the center in civilian clothes, in most cases those issued by the Federal prison from which he has been transferred. He may receive other civilian clothes from his family or buy them if this seems desirable. In his first days at the center he is made familiar with the facilities and what is expected of him. He begins personal counseling and employment counseling, and participates in evening programs of group counseling, lectures and special audiovisual programs. The latter programs and speakers recruited from the community deal with problems that young men encounter in trying to establish economic self-sufficiency and a satisfying social life in the community.

Two or three days after the men arrive they are given job leads or they are referred to a staff person in the state employment office with whom the em-

[16] Glaser, *Effectiveness of Prison and Parole System*, pp. 277-281.

TABLE 1. INMATES ON WORK RELEASE, BY STATE PRISON—1971

	Number of Men on Work Release	*Total Adult Male Population*	*Percent of Men on Work Release*
Alabama	None	4,000	—
Alaska	47	400	11.8
Arizona	12	1,350	0.9
Arkansas	None	1,324	—
California	300	17,900	1.7
Colorado	36	1,943	1.9
Connecticut	14	1,500	0.9
Delaware	120	600	20.0
District of Columbia	326	1,700	19.2
Florida	650	9,000	7.2
Georgia	85	6,215	1.4
Hawaii	25	256	9.8
Idaho	12	391	3.1
Illinois	100	7,086	1.4
Indiana	150	4,500	3.3
Iowa	115	1,600	7.2
Kansas	(No estimate available)	660	—
Kentucky	None	3,010	—
Louisiana	125	4,100	3.0
Maine	None	350	—
Maryland	300	5,000	6.0
Massachusetts	15	2,300	0.7
Michigan	104	9,210	1.1
Minnesota	36	1,651	2.2
Mississippi	None	1,850	—
Missouri	(No estimate available)	3,449	—
Montana	10	272	3.7
Nebraska	40	1,000	4.0
Nevada	None	705	—
New Hampshire	10	217	4.6
New Jersey	125	5,500	2.3
New Mexico	7	742	0.9
New York	(No estimate available)	12,208	—
North Carolina	1,075	10,076	10.7
North Dakota	3	137	2.2
Ohio	None	9,145	—
Oklahoma	35	3,112	1.1
Oregon	133	1,831	7.3
Pennsylvania	None	5,328	—
Rhode Island	35	550	6.4
South Carolina	575	3,267	17.6
South Dakota	17	389	4.4
Tennessee	146	3,300	4.4
Texas	36	14,640	0.2
Utah	40	540	7.4
Vermont	None	142	—
Virginia	150	6,000	2.5
Washington	125	2,437	5.1
West Virginia	None	1,046	—
Wisconsin	450	2,600	17.3
Wyoming	None	257	—

Source: Kenneth J. Lenihan, *The Financial Resources of Released Prisoners*, Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., Washington, D.C., March 1974, p. 15.

ployment counselor has a working relationship. They may also follow up their own employment leads. The employment counselor will travel with some of the more inadequate youths to introduce them to personnel at the employment service or to potential employers, but they prefer to have a youth apply for and obtain a job on his own if possible. When a youth finds employment, he leaves the center each morning to go to work and returns each night.

At the end of their first day's work, and regularly thereafter, the inmates discuss their experience on the job with the employment counselor or with other members of the staff. They may also discuss job experiences in the group counseling sessions.

As the men begin to earn an income, they start paying for some of their expenses, which include meals and laundry. A major emphasis in the counseling, when the men have some earnings, is on budgeting. The bank account, often containing several hundred dollars by parole date, is a new experience for most of these youths, and its size is a source of considerable prestige.

After the men arrive at the centers they are introduced to their future parole supervision officer from the local U.S. Probation Office. Counseling responsibility is shifted gradually from the center staff to the probation officer, who is consulted regarding a youth's plans or problems, especially if the plans involve a change in parole, home or job. By the time a youth is ready to start his parole (3 or 4 months after arrival), his counseling supervision has been completely shifted to the parole officer and he is not encouraged to return to the center. However, in the few instances when men have returned to talk about post release problems with members of the center staff, their problems are discussed with them, but their probation officer is also called into the conference if possible or is kept informed. In the center at Oakland, California the probation officers have the sole case management and counseling responsibility from the beginning.

Pros and Cons. The release of prisoners to work in the community can present large problems if the program is not well administered. The community may not be receptive to a sizeable influex of prisoners. For example, the Federal program reflects sensitivity to union interests. Public Law 89-176 states that prisoners may be released to work at paid employment in the community provided that:

(i) "representatives of local union central bodies or similar labor union organizations are consulted;

(ii) such paid employment will not result in the displacement of employed workers, or be applied in skills, crafts, or trades in which there is a surplus of available gainful labor in the locality to impair existing contracts for services; and

(iii) the rates of pay and other conditions of employment will not be less than those paid or provided for work of similar nature in the locality in which the work is to be performed."

The establishment of prerelease and work release centers requires tact and careful site selection. Some communities may need reassurance when residential facilities are being established. One issue is the possibility of escape. The correctional administrator, aware of the careful selection process for work release, may have confidence in his prisoners, but his knowledge is not necessarily shared by the public.

The benefits to the offender on work release are readily apparent. For the misdemeanant it means continuation of family and employment ties. For the felon, it reduces the dislocating effects of release such as resuming his responsibilities immediately, with welfare aid to the family terminated all too often before he is in a position to shoulder family expenses.

Work release provides a transitional period that can reduce the floundering often experienced by the man who must accept any job in order to gain his freedom on parole. However, in many cases, the work release facility is far from his home location where the man will be released, and he will have to find new work there unless he stays where the work release facility is located.

The opportunity for gainful employment has psychological results that cannot be measured. Receiving financial support strengthens family ties. For the inmate who had steady employment before imprisonment, the job that pays a fair wage can only have a positive effect. For those who have learned a skill in the institution, work release offers an excellent opportunity to test out a new occupation. For others, the job may be a training situation in which new skills are acquired.

When the Bureau of Prisons compared persons released directly from prisons with those released through the community treatment centers, they found lower violation rates for the latter and differences in rates were most marked in the highest risk categories —recidivist youthful auto thieves.[17]

[17] Reis H. Hall, Mildred Milazzo and Judy Pasner, *A Descriptive and Comparative Study of Recidivism in Pre-Release Guidance Center Releasees*, U.S. Bureau of Prisons, Washington, D.C. 1966, pp. 4–5.

Just as important as the effects on individual prisoners are far-reaching consequences for the corrections institution. More than any other innovation, work release represents the shift of focus to the community. Some state systems have begun to adopt the prerelease system. South Carolina began with one center; now has five, one of which is directed by an ex offender.

As long as corrections restricted the rehabilitative process to institutions removed from the community, the physical and psychological distance created obstacles to program development and eventual reintegration of the offender. With work release and the concomitant development of halfway houses or community treatment centers, the correctional institution has extended itself into the community. To a certain degree the policies and practices of corrections are more visible.

D. Working Together

In large jurisdictions, where most institutional programs exist, community agencies are sometimes involved in program establishment and maintenance, but liaison between prisons and other institutions has a long way to go. Failure of follow through may be responsible for much of the poor showing that many rehabilitation efforts so far reveal. Effective working relationships are crucial for manpower services—unless the resources of the institution are related to the community network of business, government, unions, and other agencies that hold the key to available jobs, the best vocational training in the world will be wasted.

Attempts to improve liaison are occurring more frequently. In some places they are very informal and are exemplified by one individual. In other areas the linkages are becoming formalized. The beginnings of integrated state systems of corrections are one example.

The development of liaison between the institution and outside groups for advice is another. The Federal Bureau of Prisons works closely with unions, and where apprenticeship is offered, with the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training of the U.S. Department of Labor for instructor certification and curriculum development.

California, Minnesota and other states have developed boards with representation from labor and industry to advise on course development and labor market needs. They also serve the purpose of assuring that the training offered is recognized by the unions.

Minnesota has developed apprenticeship programs under the Apprenticeship Division of the State Industrial Commission. Advisory boards of labor and industry have been organized for each trade offered. Training courses meet the same standards as those for outside apprenticeships. Apprenticeship begun in the institution can be continued upon release.

The integration of correctional institution vocational training and education into the state system of public instruction has been accomplished in Connecticut, Illinois, Texas, Virginia, and Wisconsin. This means additional sources of funds, teachers, accreditation, and a better likelihood of obtaining up-to-date equipment and supplies.

In order to concentrate employment service resources on bringing offenders into contact with jobs and training opportunities, the U.S. Employment Service developed a model that would create a corrections desk in each state office as well as in the state's largest urban area; station special counselors, job developers, and community aides in correctional institutions and in local employment service offices; and hire former inmates to help other offenders make the adjustment to outside life.

Arizona, Georgia, Massachusetts, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin have developed programs based on this model that are now under state funding. Several other states now have one or two employment service staff members assigned to specialize in ex offender employment.

The focus is on continuing service to inmates before and after release to help them get and stay on their jobs. The placement rate over a 3-year period has ranged between 30 and 60 percent with the average being 41.5. In fact, the placement rate for ex offenders has generally exceeded the placement rate for non offenders. The employment service interviewers and counselors, located "inside-the-walls" get to know the inmate who is about to be released on a first-name basis. They learn about his background before coming to prison (what kind of work he has done—what skills he has—what successes he knew as an employee). They disseminate this record to employment service job developers as well as to other agencies or organizations and volunteers who are interested in finding jobs for ex inmates. Everyone tries to "sell" employers on hiring this individually and specifically identified person on the specifically named date of his release from prison. In Philadelphia, for example, the potential employer

is urged to go to the prison and talk with his potential employee about the kind of work he would be expected to do, the wages and benefits to be received, the tools to be used, and the clothes to be worn.

E. Community Programs

Today the emphasis is on placement and training programs in the community. With the institution as the last resort, intervention with "corrective" action at earlier and earlier stages is becoming more common. This means an increase in facilities and programs designed to stimulate law-abiding behavior through wider use of probation, parole, and pretrial intervention. Rehabilitation programs have been developed at these early stages of intervention by various branches of government, unions and private business, as well as by religious and other voluntary organizations.

Post incarceration programs such as halfway houses, volunteer assistance by ex offender and other groups, and intensive job counseling and education programs directed toward increased hiring of former offenders exhibit great diversity at the moment. The following paragraphs merely offer some idea of the scope of these programs.

The National Alliance of Businessmen reported placing over 2500 persons with criminal records as of April 1974 in about 95 metropolitan areas. NAB is primarily a job development resource that works with the available job openings amongst its member firms and notify the correction agency of these openings.

One of the major automotive companies has auto mechanic training programs in about 30 locations and it regularly includes former offenders in some of these programs. A number of firms conduct training programs in institutions.[18]

Ex offender troups such as *Project Second Chance, The Fortune Society*, and *Project Manhood* provide counseling, referral services, screening, job development, and placement services for ex offenders. The major role of the ex offender staff is to assist clients in making their transition from prison. Because of their backgrounds the counselors are particularly effective in understanding the problems of their clients and in assisting them to develop their self-esteem.

South Forty and *Seven Steps* help clients both during and after incarceration. Inmates are exposed to a comprehensive program, including group problem solving, basic education, counseling and job readiness training. The most significant aspect of these programs are the self-help group sessions, which instill a sense of pride and motivation in the inmates. Ex offenders provide counseling, placement, housing and financial aid during the transition period after release.

One program that has potential for offenders is the Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America. OIC's focus on self-motivation and self-development of the client. Their training programs for members of disadvantaged groups depend heavily on advice and assistance from private industry, which keeps them abreast of its needs. (See Chapter 3.)

The OIC prepared 116,344 persons for jobs in 1972, with a placement rate of 62 percent. Though this is a respectable achievement compared with other national manpower programs, nevertheless, it represents about a 10 percent decrease over the previous year. Placements were more difficult due to changed business conditions. The strong centers with active business and industry advisory support generally did a better placement job.

OIC reports that its average training cost is $852 per enrollee, and that OIC places its enrollees into employment for $1500. The average trainee goes on to earn a taxable income of $6000 during his first year of employment after training.

Another particularly useful example of effective community program is pretrial intervention, which is discussed in the next section.

F. Pretrial Intervention

Deferred prosecution has existed in many jurisdictions for some time. Pretrial intervention programs supplement this type of action by intensive supervision and management for up to 18 months.

A pretrial diversion project typically calls for stopping the prosecution clock on less serious or first felony offenders after arrest and prior to arraignment. Referrals are based on formal eligibility criteria (being free from drugs is a common one). Those selected for the program are offered counseling, job placement, education and supportive personal services. If the offender responds for a measurable period (e.g., 3-6 months), either the court or the prosecutor, or both, depending on the authorization of the project, are asked to approve dismissal of the case prior to trial and adjudication. If the offender fails in his program obligations, he is returned fo

[18] See Far West *Sourcebook*.

prosecution. There are many variations on this basic theme.

The two pilot programs were the Manhattan Court Employment Project and the District of Columbia's "Project Crossroads." Both began in 1968 with Department of Labor manpower funds and were sufficiently successful to be transferred to local government agencies and funding sources at extended capacities. They responded to a need to alleviate clogged court caseloads, and to the belief that for selected offenders, effective assistance on the outside will serve them better than incarceration.[19]

Pretrial release can include any degree of private and public agency assistance to the offender, including an assigned counselor, daily contact with the releasing agency, temporary supervised housing, a restitution program, as well as deferred prosecution. The original pretrial programs have been carefully studied and modifications according to varying needs and circumstances are being operated in more than 55 jurisdictions.[20] The Commission on Correctional Facilities and Services of the American Bar Association furnishes assistance in developing new programs.

Pretrial intervention has thus far produced consistently better results with its participants than offenders handled by normal prosecution procedures. Results have been unusually good with the early or less serious offender. Recidivism and rearrest rates are lower, and job retention and placement are higher, although it must be granted that those chosen for PTI participation usually are the better risks.

A considerable savings to the taxpayer occurs by reducing costly and often unnecessary incarceration of selected defendants prior to trial. Further savings accrue when the released defendant is able to maintain employment during this period, thus reducing the cost of welfare and other public agencies' support to his family, as well as a savings in public agency cost that may occur if the defendant becomes unemployed as a result of incarceration. Those who are released prior to trial tend to secure legal counsel at their own expense more often than those who are pending trial. Finally, the stigma of incarceration is avoided for the first offender.

Some of the problems become apparent when one realizes that pretrial intervention or diversion lies at the intersection of conflicting values and concerns —the right of bail, the risks of flight, the presumption of innocence, and the safety of the community.

G. Summing Up

With the exception of work release, most of nontraditional manpower programs and services are still experimental. While most lack validating research as to their results, they represent a considerable advance over a decade ago.[21] There are sufficient indications of their utility not only in terms of reducing costs but also in reducing the isolating effects of institutions and focussing on the reintegration of offenders into their communities. Such reintegration is the ultimate test of the effects of the correctional process.

Early projects were based in the prison and focussed on skill training. They pinpointed the need for change within the individual offender. Over the years emphasis has shifted to projects within the community that focus on job development and placement. They highlight the need for change within social institutions as well.

The first generation of manpower programs for offenders were aimed at the young male offender. They generally attempted to exclude the mentally ill, the alcoholic and the drug addict. As more is learned about working with offenders with problems susceptible to solution through employment, these groups are gradually being accepted in programs.

Proposed model programs are now being directed toward female offenders and ex offenders, older prison releasees, juvenile delinquents, Spanish-speaking offenders, and offenders who are heads of household eligible for welfare.

One of the most important facts the models seek to find out is: at what point or points in the criminal justice system—from arrest to release—can a particular offender group best be given manpower services.

The foregoing years of experimental, demonstration, research and evaluation effort have produced strong evidence of the value of a comprehensive approach to employment and training problems of

[19] See "Pretrial Intervention Correctional Services: A Diversionary Alternative to Criminal Prosecution," Arnold J. Hopkins, address at American Correctional Association Congress of Corrections, Seattle, Washington, August 14, 1973.

[20] *A Handbook on Community Corrections in Des Moines* (An Exemplary Project), U.S. Department of Justice, LEAA, NILECJ, Washington, D.C., describes a successful program that is integrated with other community activities dealing with ex offenders. Des Moines does not offer deferred prosecution and deals with more serious offenders than the usual pretrial release programs.

[21] Robert Martinson, "What Works—Questions and Answers About Prison Reform," The Public Interest, Number 35, Spring 1974, publ. quarterly by National Affairs, Inc., 10 East 53 Street, New York, New York, pp. 24–55.

offenders. A balanced program of manpower services at each stage of the criminal justice system—pretrial, probation, incarceration, parole, and after release—should be stressed rather than sole concentration on inmate training.[22] Since most offenders are already in society, whether on bail, or probation, or parole, or in community-based corrections and since they may remain at one stage of the criminal justice system for a long time and may exit from the system at a number of points, it is vital that there be program options at each stage of the criminal justice and corrections system to offer a continuous sequence of services. Some of the best techniques, as judged by current acceptance, are set forth in the following chapters.

[22] See Pieczenik, *Review of Manpower R & D Projects.*

PART II

APPROACHES TO JOB PLACEMENT AND TRAINING

INTRODUCTION

Chapters 3 and 4 offer information on how to (1) help an individual prepare himself for a job, (2) develop jobs, (3) see that former offenders are properly placed, and (4) create a stable relationship between the employer and the employee. They deal with complicated processes taking place on many levels at the same time. Program approaches vary with whether they take place in institutions or outside or in both successively, and with the varying objectives of different types of sponsors. The stage of intervention also heavily affects program decisions. A volume whose scope includes all manpower programs for offenders and ex offenders can, therefore, only highlight some of the areas of decision and a few of the troublesome issues for specific types of programs. The authors' aim is to present a coordinated look at a selection of useful approaches. The reader may also want to use Chapter 2 as a supplemental resource with these chapters.

The procedures outlined are meant for thought and study and adaptation to local needs and local resources. There is no single approach that has universal validity. Resources within each community differ and they will have to be applied in different ways to meet particular needs.

These pages owe a large debt to the LEAA Exemplary Project validation reports and to the pioneering studies listed below, as well as to all those who generously discussed their programs with the authors.

The Draper E & D Project, Final Report, Vols. I and II, Sept. 1, 1964-Aug. 31, 1968. The Rehabilitation Research Foundation, Elmore, Alabama. Volume II is a manual directed toward administrators of institutional job training, with useful points on job duties and how to go about them, as well as sample forms. Much of the information is transferable to community programs.

A Guide to Correctional Vocational Training: The First National Sourcebook, July 1973, produced by New England Resource Center for Occupational Education, Newton, Massachusetts, and Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, California. The Sourcebook reports on 66 out of 1000 training programs identified originally, which operate in correctional institutions or serve inmate-students in outside training facilities. It is the first major research that details how various inmate training programs are implemented, financed and operated. It lists descriptive and curriculum materials available and whom to contact for further information.

Ordering Time to Serve Prisoners: A Manual for the Planning and Administering of Work Release, by Walter H. Busser. National Work Release Study, American Justice Institute, Sacramento, California, June 1973, U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Technical Assistance Division. A step by step manual for the operation of a work release program with pertinent information for any manpower services program.

A Review of Manpower R & D Projects in the Correctional Field (1963-1973), by Roberta Rovner-Pieczenik of Criminal Justice Research, Inc., Manpower Research Monograph No. 28, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973. History and analysis of projects with emphasis on issues relating to project success.

The Selection and Training of Advocates and Screeners for a Pre-Trial Diversion Program, prepared by Boston Court Resource Project, 14 Somerset Street, Boston, Massachusetts 02108, $2.00. A handbook that will be useful for running any community corrections program.

Project Challenge, Lorton, Virginia, 1968, National Committee for Children and Youth, Leon G. Leiberg, Project Director. A detailed report on methods and results of a comprehensive program for felons sentenced to Lorton Youth Center based upon job training and placement. Project Challenge, begun on July 1, 1966, was designed to offer these young offenders (1) a coordinated schedule of vocational training and remedial education, (2) intensive counseling designed to instill positive social attitudes and to assist the trainees in identifying with the social and economic system to which they would return upon release, (3) a systematic follow-up program of job development and placement and individual family and career counseling after release from the institution.

CHAPTER 3. JOB READINESS

Any attempt to make employment more readily available for offenders and ex offenders must integrate a number of activities in order to be effective. A worker must have motivation, job skills, work discipline, and education. A manpower services program begins with the selection process and finding out who needs what.

A. Selection

The criteria for selection of program participants will differ by stage of intervention—whether pretrial, probation, institution, parole, or post release. They will vary by objectives chosen for a given program, whether it be a prison program, a halfway in or halfway out residence program, work release or a less confined program.

The strategy of the program having been made explicit (such as to take those who are the most likely to succeed—or the opposite), factors for consideration include age, sex, type of crime, major mental or physical handicaps, underemployment or unemployment. The following excerpt from *Project Challenge* describes some of the thinking that goes into this process.[1]

> The design of the screening and selection component of the project reflected the belief that, normally, a large segment of the correctional population—and probably the majority of the hard-core recidivist group—receive only token exposure to meaningful treatment and training programs. While, admittedly, the rehabilitation of this hard-core population is very difficut and correctional treatment staff would prefer to concentrate on those inmates who "can be helped," it is the former group which must be reached if we are to slow the pace of the revolving door of recidivism.
>
> Criteria for selection of individuals for Project Challenge training consisted of the following:
>
> (1) Demonstrated interest and motivation for training as indicated by the filing of an application.
>
> (2) Determination of an applicant's relative need for skill-training based on an examination and assessment of the level of skill development reflected in his preincarceration employment record.
>
> (3) Proximity in time to probable release on parole was considered in order to assure that training would be completed as closely as practicable to the anticipated release date.
>
> (4) Individuals who had completed MDTA training within a period of 1 year prior to application for our program were not accepted.
>
> Selections were made by a committee composed of the training coordinator, counseling supervisor and job development officer, with the approval of the project director. Youth Center classification and parole staff provided information and advice but were not directly involved in the selection process. With a few exceptions, training enrollment was limited in order to maintain an optimal trainee-instructor ratio of twelve to one. The training cycles were designed to run consecutively and lasted from 4 to 9 months, depending on the vocational area.
>
> The recruitment and selection process was a continuing function throughout the life of the project. Those men not accepted for the first training sessions and subsequent applicants were assigned to a "hold" status and entered training as openings occurred or as new cycles began. While awaiting entry into training, they were invited to participate in tutorial and remedial education classes and other supportive activities and services offered by the project.
>
> Of the total of 229 applicants for training during the contract period, 181 were selected and enrolled in the program. All except two of those enrolled met selection requirements. In both cases, the applicants were serving long-term sentences but were allowed to enter training because of what the counseling staff considered unusually strong motivation and because there existed possibilities for advanced training in institutional on-the-job training assignments in their chosen vocational areas.

[1] *Project Challenge*, see p. 34.

Once the criteria have been chosen for qualifying an applicant, problems arise in applying them. Shall the criteria be disregarded in special circumstances? In what circumstances should they change? Some programs do deviate from the criteria. Flexibility is a major tool for offender programs and one of the main ways it is used is in modifying selection criteria after a suitable shakedown period. This is one way programs get broadened to take in older or younger offenders, addicts, and others with special problems.

B. Orientation

Orientation should explain the program, its goals and responsibilities and its rules and regulations. Orientation information should be very clear and very specific. (See the Fact Sheet for New Clients and the Work Furlough Rules and Regulations examples in Appendix A, pp. 69–75.) The consequences of not observing the program rules should be made explicit since many programs will not permit a participant to remain once he has broken a rule.

Following is a sample check list of subjects to cover during orientation:

(1) The responsibility of
   a. the participant to the program.
   b. the program director to the participant.
(2) How, when, and where to contact the program director.
(3) Who to contact in an emergency when the director is not available.
(4) Rules and procedures governing conduct while
   a. in the program.
   b. on the job or at school.
   c. on furlough or special leave.
(5) How to check out and check in at the facility.
(6) What clothing may be worn inside and outside the facility.
(7) What personal possessions must be surrendered upon checking in and recovered upon checking out.
(8) Provisions for safeguarding valuables.
(9) Educational, vocational, recreational, and other activities.
(10) Expectations regarding participation in educational and/or other activities.
(11) How performance is evaluated.
(12) What will happen if job is lost through no fault of participant.
(13) How to contact probation or parole officer.
(14) When job changes are allowed.
(15) Participant's rights when director intends to recommend supervision or termination of program status.
(16) Medical, dental, and psychiatric resources available.

In the course of the orientation the staff should

(1) Assist the program participant or client in making any arrangements with creditors, financial institutions, or family or friends to stabilize his financial condition until his earnings become available to satisfy obligations.
(2) Seek to expedite any pending legal actions so that they will not jeopardize the participant's program status.
(3) Facilitate the settling or easing of any domestic or personal problems that could threaten the participant's morale, on the job performance, or willingness to accept the requirements of his status in the program.
(4) Arrange with appropriate social work, medical, and educational agencies or in-house staff to provide continuing counseling or other forms of special assistance needed by the participant (and his family, if this is part of the program).
(5) Arrange that any medicine required by and/or prescribed for the participant be made available, if he is in a residential program.

Concerns over domestic matters, finances, and personal health can burden a participant to the point of complete frustration. The earlier that a program counselor or team learns about such problems, the better chance there is of taking steps to lessen the likelihood that the participant will be overwhelmed by them and react in ways detrimental to himself and others. "Crash" counseling is a term frequently used for what takes place at this point. The Goal Preference List shown in Appendix A is a good way to find out what may be bothering a client and a way to begin to know him as an individual.

C. Assessment

Testing and Evaluation. Information on testing vocational skills and aptitudes and related behavioral

performance can be obtained from the local employment service office.[2]

The Environmental Deprivation Scale (EDS) and Maladaptive Behavior Record (MBR) developed by the Experimental Manpower Laboratory for Corrections are instruments that can be used to predict offender success in the community and to determine which community supportive services are most needed by individual offenders.[3] The EDS is a 16-item checklist of environmental influences on the individual in a variety of areas such as occupation, organizations, and interpersonal relationships. It not only provides an overall index of potential adjustment in the community but also pinpoints areas of deficiency so that re-training or intervention can be planned. The MBR is a checklist of an individual's responses to his environment in the areas of work, adjustment to co-workers, alcohol consumption, gambling, fights, and money management, that predicts law-violating behavior.

EDS and MBR are new, experimental and are not in widespread use. Most places, if conducting formal assessment, use standardized tests such as

MMPI, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory
GATB, General Abilities Test Battery
DAT, Differential Aptitude Test
ABLE, Adult Basic Learning Examination
TABE, Test of Adult Basic Education

Work sampling, in which clients assess their aptitudes and skills by completing programmed work tasks at a series of sampling stations, without the need for reading and writing, is in use in many places. However, many projects believe that traditional criteria such as ability and aptitude tests, interest inventory, and past record are no more valuable than a decision by the client, based on information about various vocational areas and the type of persons who usually succeed in them.

Client Goals and Responsibilities. A sense of powerlessness commonly pervades the offender: "Most of them have a key characteristic in common: they don't believe they can succeed at anything straight and . . . would not know how to go about doing it." Change will come about only through the development of resources in the participant. As *The Selection and Training of Advocates* puts it, "Resources are taken in their widest sense: skill, education, persuasive power, and all goods, qualities, and attributes which have exchange value. For a client to grow he must acquire resources of his own, and the acquisition of those resources must be directly related to his own actions. To support a client morally, psychologically, or financially without developing his ability to acquire resources of his own only prolongs his dependency and increases his frustration. Anything you 'give,' you can also take away, and there is not a client alive that doesn't recognize this."[4]

In line with this philosophy, there is a trend toward working out with the individual participant a plan in which he develops his own goals and a schedule of how to get there. A participant must identify his financial obligations, establishing priorities and develop a plan that yields the maximum benefits from his resources. The program must include employment plans and training plans, if needed, but it need not be complicated, as shown in Figure 1.

The client-developed plan is a particularly important part of the pretrial intervention programs and other newly emerging community programs. The purpose accords with the recommendations of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals to encourage a sense of responsibility on the part of the offender, which in turn helps to promote a feeling of having some control over his own destiny.

Two assumptions underlay this direction: (1) A participant must bear responsibility for his own actions, and (2) a participant is able to determine the consequences of his own behavior. This relationship between the assumption of responsibility and success can be seen in the "mutual agreement programming" concept discussed in Chapter 2.

Offender projects cannot rely on offender self-motivation or inherent project qualities to encourage maximum performance. While these forces do operate to varying degrees for different participants, they

[2] See particularly National Council on Crime and Delinquency Research Center, *The Effect of Vocational Upgrading Upon Probationer Recidivism*, A One-Year Evaluation of the Singer/Graflex Monroe County Pilot Probation Project, Davis, California, January 1972.

[3] W. O. Jenkins and W. Lee Sanford, *A Manual for the Use of the Environmental Deprivation Scale (EDS) in Corrections: The Prediction of Criminal Behavior*, Experimental Manpower Laboratory for Corrections (EMLC), Elmore, Ala., October 1972; Marlin Barton, and W. O. Jenkins, *The Maladaptive Behavior Record (MBR): A Scale for the Analysis and Prediction of Community Adjustment and Recidivism of Offenders*, January 1973, Experimental Manpower Laboratory for Corrections, Rehabilitation Research Foundation, Elmore, Alabama 36025.

[4] Boston Court's *Selection and Training of Advocates and Screeners for Pre-Trial Diversion*, p. 18

6. Each Thursday at approximately 6:00 p.m., there will be a meeting of all staff and residents. At this time, the residents will be informed about their privileges for the coming weekend. It is important for a resident not to make plans for the weekend until after the Thursday meeting.

7. While a resident is living at the Center, he will be expected to budget his income, and he will be encouraged to open a bank account. It will be the resident's responsibility to pay his bills on time and to save as much money as he can while he is living at the Center.

I have read and I understand the above, and agree to abide by this Contract.

9/21/73
Date

INDIVIDUAL CONTRACT

✓1. Complete GED
✓2. Get a job
3. Save money

Amended Contract 3/12/74

1. Save money - open savings acct
2. Make plans to buy a car
3. Make plans to find own residence
4. Check into junior college
5. I will try to keep my head straight and refrain from hard drugs.

Sally W. Steen
Counselor

(deleted)
Resident

9/21/73
Date

FIGURE 1. Extract from an Offender-Staff Agreement.

cannot be depended upon to stimulate excellence. Pieczenik reports that only a small number of projects have experimented directly with and refined technical use for behavioral change that depend upon incentives and their use.

The ability to change one's behavior is fostered by the techniques of contingency-management, the token economy, and programmed instruction according to experiments at the Experimental Manpower Laboratory for Corrections.[5]

Attainment of job goals depends not only upon adequate skills and placement opportunities, but upon appropriate attitudes, motivations and perceptions, as discussed in the next section.

D. Work Attitudes and Social Skills

Effective job performance depends upon the acquisition of work-related attitudes and social skills. Clients must learn to manage everything from competitive work pressure to arriving at work on time. Many of the program directors interviewed concluded that the difficulty facing many clients was not inability to learn specific work tasks but an inability to adjust to the general work setting and to exhibit the traits expected of most workers. Project reports note that making an offender employable includes improving his ability to work regular hours, enter into social relationships with co-workers, work under competitive pressures in the community, and obtain some satisfactions from work. Lack of punctuality, poor work attitudes, difficulties with supervisor and co-workers are often the reasons why employers fire offenders, or any other employees, for that matter. Formal training in work habits (e.g., punctuality), personnel policy regulations (e.g., telephoning when ill), and social skills (relationships with co-workers) should be part of every program that deals with placing offenders in jobs.[6]

The Vocational Opinion Index measures an individual's job readiness by assessing (1) attractions to work, (2) losses associated with obtaining and maintaining a job, and (3) barriers to employment. Based upon the findings, training objectives and remedial approaches can be developed to help individuals improve their "job readiness posture." For example, the barrier areas may be addressed by mitigating, or partially mitigating, the physical barrier problems, by helping a person learn to cope with the barrier or by helping him realistically perceive the barrier as it relates to work. Thus, one mechanism is sessions on problem solving. They can be as trivial as teaching someone to use a bus schedule and as complex as helping people to find available day care, evaluate it and obtain its services for their child. "The goal of the problem solving session is to teach the trainee all the skills necessary to retain the locus of control, i.e., to teach the trainee to collect all the necessary data, integrate it and then act upon his conclusions rather than relying upon a counselor, social worker or neighbor to solve his child care or transportation problems for him."[7]

Instruction in the discipline of employment (regular hours, accepting supervision and responsibility) is commonly provided informally by the counseling staff. Projects that have developed prevocational training disagree regarding the nature and scope of work-related behavior, although all agree it is important. In one project, training took the form of a course in tool use; in another, a role-playing group focusing on worker-supervisor relationship. In one project it was called prevocational training; in another work adjustment training. Whatever it is called, the common bond is emphasis on social and psychological education and other skills that enable a participant to obtain and maintain employment.

Related to work attitudes and job holding is the problem of transportation that is faced by many ex offenders. Clients live in the inner city and the jobs are in outer areas. Clients need to be persuaded that they will have to travel to get to the job. They need information on public transportation. They need information on how to join or form a car pool. They may even need a car. The Roxbury Multiservice Center uses a hand-drawn map of Boston to illustrate a session on where the jobs are and where most of the ex offenders live.

Sometimes the problem is not merely transportation but a reluctance to leave the accustomed environment. In Washington, D.C., for example, there is a pervasive feeling among the inner city black

[5] See *The Draper Project Final Report*, Vol. I, The Rehabilitative Research Foundation, Elmore, Ala.

[6] Pieczenik notes that becoming aware of what jobs are available is also a learned skill, which is related to prior exposure to the office or shop. Project GET SET exposed its participants to a variety of workers, visits to work locations, and role-playing work situation. In the Philadelphia Youth Development Day Treatment Center project, juveniles took part in an orientation period that allowed each participant to spend time in and sample five vocational training fields.

[7] Marna C. Whittington and Stephen D. Benson, *Transition to Work III, Development and Implementation of the VOI Transition System*, Philadelphia: Associates for Research and Behavior, Inc., 1974, pp. 19–20.

population of more prevalent racial discrimination in the suburbs, but other cities experience the same situation, even when there is no color barrier, with ethnic groups that have close ties in a limited geographic area.

E. Basic Education

A number of clients need further schooling to obtain and hold a job. Some programs are large enough to make arrangements with the public school system to furnish a teacher to work with students who need to obtain the GED (General Education Development) certificate, equivalent to a high school diploma. Other programs may take advantage of adult basic education programs in the schools. Others use volunteer tutors, alone, or with the school.[8]

F. Counseling

Counseling means different things in different projects. Distinctions have been made between vocational and personal counseling. Some projects prefer group counseling while others tend towards individual counseling. "Rapping" has been the major counseling technique in some projects, confrontation in others. The choice depends upon client needs and the objectives of the program. One categorization is as follows: [9]

Individual Counseling—Concerned with surface problems relating to immediate environment and conduct. Not concerned with basic psychological processes or emotional relationships. Can be provided by reasonably skilled program staff, probation or parole officers, rehabilitation officers, or volunteers. Common in manpower services programs.

Individual Treatment—Concerned with crippling emotional and/or personality problems requiring professional attention. Can be obtained from local mental health agencies; some private and public social work, and correctional agencies and private therapists. If selection has worked reasonably well, few of the clients in a manpower program should need individual treatment.

Family Counseling—Concerned with marital and child-raising problems. Requires involvement of spouse and, at times children, in the treatment process. State vocational rehabilitation agencies are authorized under the Vocational Rehabilitation Act to buy services for offenders through contract with private employers and training centers. Psychological testing and job counseling services are also available in most states from SVR agencies, from public and private social work and mental health agencies, church counseling centers, and private counselors. Use of such far-reaching methods depends upon the philosophy and finances of the program.

Group Counseling—Concerned with improving clients' methods of social adjustments and behavior. Uses guided group interaction as treatment method. Method requires competent leadership. Should not be used in an institution as a subsitute for individual counseling. Practically all manpower projects examined have "Group" one or two nights a week, it is a major program component.

The type of counseling (e.g., individual vs. group) and its particular orientation (e.g., reality therapy vs. rapping) may be less important than the existence of a relationship characterized by trust, concern, respect, and continuity. The abrupt dissolution of a counselor-participant relationship may be as damaging to post project success as it has been supportive during project participation.

The counselor role, per se, has been omitted in some projects and in others it forms the crux of the program. The counseling process in the Draper Manpower Development and Training project, for example, included orientation, testing, vocational guidance, prevocational training, counseling during training, job development and placement, and follow-up counseling.

G. Skill Training

Skill areas. As Pieczenik says, "Much has been learned about selecting training areas, although it

[8] For information on criteria for evaluating learning material see John M. McKee, Rehabilitation Research Foundation, Draper Correctional Center—"Materials and Technology of Adult Basic Education for Corrections," presented at the Regional Seminar on Delivery Systems of Adult Basic Education in Corrections, Athens, Ga., Feb. 8, 1971; and "Hardware and Software for Adult Basic Education in Corrections," presented at the Regional Seminar on Adult Basic Education in Corrections, Pomona, Calif., May 14, 1972.

[9] Walter H. Busher, *Ordering Time to Serve Prisoners: A Manual for the Planning and Administering of Work Release*, National Work Release Study, American Justice Institute, Sacramento, California, June 1973, U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Technical Assistance Division, pp. 90–91.

is in the form of what not to do rather than how to proceed from here."[10] Although most projects surveyed inmate interest prior to project selection and training area assignment, those interests did not play a significant role in the initial selection of training areas, as they should have.[11]

New training areas, both blue- and white-collar, should be introduced. Training areas reflect middle-class biases concerning the type of work an offender is capable of and should be performing: most training is offered in blue-collar and service occupations. Little training has thus far been done in human service occupations, such as work with the aged, children, and the handicapped, althouh this is being considered in at least one state women's institution.

A former resident of Lebanon, Ohio Correctional Institution has recently become the director of a training center for brain-injured children at Carlisle, Ohio, in one example of what can be accomplished. The director was one of the original participants in a program operated by the Lebanon institution in which residents are released to work with handicapped youngsters in four area training centers, including the one at Carlisle. Residents selected for the program are released daily to work in four nearby clinics with brain-injured children.

Level of Training. Short-term entry-level training has typically been offered the offender. Projects such as Fresh Start, which attempted to bring trainees to a level of skill where they could perform on the job at realistic levels of production have been rare. Training to the entry level is perhaps understandable since: (1) employers often prefer to hire at the lowest entry level and do their own skill training; (2) prison and other training programs do not possess the equipment, space, or machinery needed for advanced training; (3) projects are geared to "produce" the largest number of trainees in the shortest amount of time; and (4) trainees with less than a sixth grade educational achievement level cannot train above entry level in a standard 6 months training cycle.

However, entry-level training places the offender in direct competition with the large group of non-criminal disadvantaged for jobs where turnover is high and the chances of on the job upgrading are low. It is not surprising that jobs obtained by offenders are not training-related and that turnover occurs within a few months following placement. With a specific commitment from a specific employer, as in the Rikers Island project, entry-level training in the prison may suffice when it is followed by on-the-job training at the plant with other employees. However, this is not the typical project arrangement.

Training programs, both prison and community-based, should work towards specific commitments between those who do the training and those who control job entry to (1) *assure a training program and level of skill which takes employers' needs into account and* (2) *provide a direct link between training and potential employment.*

The Oak Ridge Training and Technology (TAT) project working with the disadvantaged (and now accepting offenders on work release) has shown that gearing training to a prearranged job can be successful).[12] The size of the population pool from which TAT has selected its trainees, trainee motivation, type of training offered and level of attainment achieved, and the simulated working conditions of the "real world" sharply distinguish this project from offender training projects. However, the concept of linking training to a guaranteed job and implementing a project that has been shaped by a future employer, which has worked with the non-offender disadvantaged, is equally applicable to offenders.

The TAT program includes 40 hours of intensive training and trade-related education each week for 26 weeks. Five hours a week are devoted to math, 3 to science, and 2 to blueprint reading. Personal counseling and employment seminars claim a few hours. Most of the time, however, is spent in shop and laboratory instruction using advanced production equipment.

TAT training has advantages over conventional vocational training because it operates in an industrial environment rich in technical resources. This affords more hours per week of instruction, a relatively low 12-to-1 ratio of students to instructors, and opportunities to work under several different teachers in the course of training. Work tasks are arranged in a sequence from the simple to the

[10] Pieczenik, *Review of Manpower R & D Projects in the Correctional Field (1963–1973)*, p. 37.

[11] A booklet such as the one used at the Maryland Correctional Training Center at Hagerstown, Maryland is useful to inmates. It lists the courses of instruction offered and describes what the course prepares a man to do and what jobs he may work at when he completes the course. It describes the course by hours of instruction divided into units, such as those for a baking course, —(1) function of ingredients, (2) pies, (3) buns, (4) cakes, (5) icings and (6) toppings. The booklet was planned, written and printed by the MCTC, the Breathedsville Jaycee Chapter and MCTC inmates.

[12] *A Model For Training The Disadvantaged: TAT at Oak Ridge, Tennessee.* Manpower Research Monograph No. 29, U.S. Department of Labor, 1973.

complex to bring the trainee up to exacting industrial standards.

Understandably, trainees vary both in ambition to learn and in the speed with which they acquire competence. Instructors use a flexible approach to these individual differences, recognizing that some graduates will have reached a higher level of skill than others. But all of them will have been prepared by a thorough and versatile training experience for further on-the-job progress.

With a professional remedial teacher on the staff, remedial education is available as needed. Programmed study materials are used, and preparation for a GED diploma is offered. In a recent class, all 38 enrollees who lacked a high school diploma took advantage of the offering and 90 percent passed the test on the first attempt.

Training is given in six occupational areas keyed to industrial demand:

(1) Machining;
(2) Combination welding;
(3) Mechanical operations (various production operations in sheet metal, pipe fitting, hydraulic mechanics, etc.);
(3) Physical testing (radiography, metallography, and various other nondestructive testing methods);
(5) Electronics;
(6) Industrial electricity.

Occupational offerings have varied somewhat, depending on indications of changing employer demand. The staff continuously collects information on job demands, primarily from employers with whom former graduates have been placed.

A major drawback to any large scale training program is that large-scale employers prefer to train their own workers. They seek skilled experienced workers to fill skilled positions and fill unskilled, good paying positions with internal referrals.

Actual Job Conditions. Training ought to simulate actual job conditions as closely as possible. One of the organizations that does this best is Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America. OIC grew primarily out of a movement of urban blacks seeking equal employment opportunity and justice. (See Chapter 2, p. 8.) Now there are well over one hundred OIC's in as many cities and a number of them are opening their doors to ex offenders.

Heavy stress is placed on the motivational and psychological aspects of basic education and skill training through a variety of means, to develop self-confidence and self-reliance.

Private industry's participation is actively sought in three major areas: (a) donation of equipment and funds; (b) curriculum and course design and (c) job development and placement.

Each OIC has a technical advisory committee for each skills training course offered. These committees are made up of representatives of industry, labor and education, who can provide expertise regarding course content and equipment relating to the training course. They also are able to supply information regarding labor market trends, technological changes, job requirements and projections for the future.

Each OIC has an industrial advisory committee for the total program, made up of top-level representatives of business, labor, education, federal, state and local manpower programs and other manpower related programs. Representatives on the policy making level provide program support and counsel in terms of funds, equipment acquisition, technical assistance and help open channels of communications with industry.

CHAPTER 4. JOBS

"Without a job, other services become merely treatment."

"Don't make the mistake of making your program rise or fall solely on job placement. In a time of rising unemployment, it can be fatal to the program."

Somewhere between these two lies the road.

A. Job Strategy

Application and Interview. Some participants may be sufficiently motivated to find work but are without resources. Other participants may have physical or psychological handicaps or be faced with problems of interpreting their criminal record to the point that unassisted job efforts are of no avail. Without staff assistance, particularly when unemployment is high, their chances of success are slim.

Finding a job, filling out an application form, interviewing an employer, and asking pertinent questions about a job are learned behavior that many offenders lack.

In helping their clients learn the ropes, programs run the gamut from long term very supportive programs to short term assistance that includes emergency financial aid and handing a client the newspaper want ads, the yellow pages of the telephone book and the address of the employment service. Whatever route your program takes, the objective should be to help the client develop a sense of responsibility and self-reliance.

One successful method of helping the offender develop skill and confidence in preparing for job interviews is outlined below. It is used at the Roxbury Multi-Service Center in Roxburg, Mass., where contact with the client begins a month or two before he leaves the institution. Clients learn to complete sample application forms from a number of companies, with emphasis on the reasons for the questions and the importance of a complete work history. They learn not to falsify their record, but also not to give more information about their conviction records than is asked for.

Clients practice role playing to gain confidence in interviews and learn about themselves. They work on interviewing with video tape. They also explore the area's transportation system in relation to where they live and where the jobs are. Transportation is a major problem for ex offenders in many places.

The Center sessions are as follows:

Orientation—Roxbury Multi-Service Center brochure, Community Corrections literature and diagram showing the geographical location of jobs, passed out and discussed with members of the workshop. (Blackboard used during this session.)

Employment Applications—Application form blown up to poster size used, forms passed out to class. (See sample application forms in Appendix C.) Explanation of forms, step by step. General rules for properly filling out of job application and a definition of what is job strategy, passed out and discussed. The general rules for properly filling out job applications are

(1) Print or write clearly and neatly, and state your full proper name.
(2) Know your social security number.
(3) Give your correct home address.
(4) Give your phone number.
(5) List all jobs you have held, starting with the one you held last and work back.
(6) Make sure all dates of employment are correct.
(7) Have truthful and proper answers for time lapses between employment dates; they must correspond.
(8) Give or state reason(s) for leaving a job.
(9) Use capital letters in proper places.
(10) Put in commas and peroids in proper places.
(11) Be sure to list schools and training programs attended and dates.
(12) List time spent in the service.
(13) State condition of health.
(14) State type of work sought.
(15) List references.
(16) List person to notify in case of emergency.

(17) Try not to erase or cross out errors on form.
(18) Be sure to fill in all boxes and answer all questions.
(19) Salary could be discussed or negotiated.
(20) Be honest and truthful—employer will check.

Review of poster size application form and a question and answer period.

The Employment Interview—Skit performed displaying improper and proper methods of presenting oneself at a job interview. Review of skit follows. General rules on how to conduct oneself during an employment interview and proper and improper attire and hygiene passed out and discussed with members of the workshop. See Appendix C, p. 83. Realities of salaries and skills possessed by clients discussed.

Role Playing—Closed Circuit TV used during role playing session with many members of the workshop portraying both roles (applicant and employer). Play back after each session and critique.

Role Playing—Same as the above in 4th session, plus presenting different situation to applicant and seeing how he would or could handle frustration and/or conflict at that moment.

Review—Filling out employment applications. Use of a second poster size form, while workshop members fill out one presented to them. Role playing review.

Job Search. Released prisoners traditionally look for jobs through their family, friends and former employers—the same way the rest of us do. Correctional institutions, probation-parole officers and state employment agencies provide minimal assistance, with a few exceptions, as noted in Chapter 2.

Most community program managers concur that at the outset at least, a client should do his own job searching, with leads provided if necessary by the job coach, or job developer, whatever the appropriate staff member is called. This is part of the process of encouraging self-reliance, responsibility, and ability to deal with the community. Search should be based upon goals developed by the client, supported by a realistic appraisal of the job market and his own skills and abilities. It will use all of the learning he has just acquired—how to present oneself to an employer (clean, suitably dressed, and with some self-respect); how to deal with the local transportation system; how to deal with an interview. If the client's search is unsuccessful after several days, further help should be forthcoming, based on the program's job development activities.

B. Job Development

Job development is a difficult and important process, requiring certain skills. Job development includes: (1) finding job openings; (2) fostering nondiscriminatory employer hiring practices; (3) developing techniques for bringing employers, programs and participants together; (4) offering supportive services for both employer and participant during the initial employment period; and (5) aiding the employer to redefine hiring qualifications and restructure jobs. The danger in a status quo "development" function is in fitting the offender to the existing market and ignoring potential change in personnel policies and employer practices.

The following hints have been gleaned from Labor Department research and development projects. (1) Personal visits to employers are preferable to telephone contacts; (2) it is important to appeal to the civic responsibility of a potential employer; (3) a close time connection is preferable between job development and participant placement; (4) the participant's record should not be hiddent from the prospective employer, or his abilities overestimated; (5) development activities should feed information back to a project so that employer concerns are taken into account.

Job Market Analysis. Analysis of the job market is the first step in effective job development. Find out what kind of jobs are available, where, what the qualifications require, and what the wages and working conditions are. Look at trends. There's no point in preparing someone to be an apple picker, if mechanical apple pickers are on their way in.

1. The local office of the employment service is a useful resource. It conducts surveys and determines the area's available skills, training needs and future occupational opportunities.

2. Visit the Chamber of Commerce to find out what industry might be entering the area and what current business trends are.

3. Use the *Occupational Outlook Handbook.*[1] The Handbook describes the nature of work, education and training requirements, employment outlook, places of employment, and earnings and working conditions for over 700 occupations.

4. If there is an economic development office or a manpower development office in your community,

[1] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin 1650. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Price $6.25.

ask the staff where the jobs are and where they are going to be.

Developing a Pool of Employers. By developing a reservoir of employers who are aware of the program and have indicated a receptivity to employing offenders for any positions that they may have available, the staff have a job development resource that they can use in several ways. Clients can be referred to those employers most likely to have jobs appropriate to the applicants' particular needs. Such referrals can be made with some assurance that the applicant, whether hired or not, will be received with some sensitivity.

The reservoir can be used where an applicant has an unusual skill or capability which a particular employer requires is likely to appreciate, and will need.

The reservoir can represent a solid body of program support that can be useful in situations calling for political action. Being composed of employers who have been screened for integrity, interest, and resources, the reservoir provides staff with the capacity to act quickly in situations where early placement is needed.

A pool of employers can be created by

- Asking staff to contribute name of employers who have hired offenders and are willing to hire others.
- Recruiting solicitation by staff, present employers, volunteers and former offenders.
- Soliciting through newspaper articles, radio and TV programs and presentations made to service clubs and civic associations.
- Contracting the local office of the National Alliance of Businessmen.
- Leads provided by members of advisory committees.

The "Guide for Employment Service Counselors in Correctional MDTA Programs"[2] is a helpful handbook of suggestions for finding and developing training-related and other jobs for offenders. Some states hold periodic conferences for groups of employers on ex offender problems and capabilities.

When identified, prospective employers should be interviewed by staff or volunteers to:

- Acquaint them with program details.
- Assess their sincerity, integrity, and availability.
- Obtain specific information concerning the kinds of employment opportunities that they may be able to offer and kind of support they are willing to give to program participants hired.

A single file for ready access by staff containing a card or folder with specific information should be prepared for each prospective employer. The individual file card or folder should contain information on:

- Name, location, telephone, number of employees, products, etc.
- Previous experience with offenders.
- Kinds of jobs available and the frequency of their availability.
- Knowledge and skill requirements of jobs.
- Salaries and working conditions.
- Firm personnel officer or other contact person. One staff member should conduct all business with this person.

If possible, recruit several large firms as employers. Such firms offer many advantages not available normally from smaller organizations. According to some projects, the larger employer offered more benefits, on-the-job training, and job up-grading.

Other projects concluded that small and medium-sized businesses were characterized by a friendly atmosphere and less rigidity in hiring and personnel policies and were preferable for former offenders.

In-House or Centralized Job Development. Job development and placement can be done (1) in house, with a little or a lot of cooperative effort with other community agencies, (2) by an agency delegated to handle it that is a creature of the various groups that developed it, (3) by the local employment service office, or (4) contracted out. There are so many variations of these methods that they should be looked at as a continuum, rather than as discrete methods, as some persons do when arguing for a particular approach.

Probably the strongest argument for a "one-stop shop" is that since delivery of services is contingent upon maximum communication and coordination among its staff, the allocation of responsibility outside the project for achieving one of its primary goals weakens the project by removing an area of control over its own efforts.

One of the main arguments for centralized job development and placement is that it avoids dupli-

[2] A Training Systems Publication of the Rehabilitation Research Foundation, P.O. Box 1197, Elmore, Alabama 36025.

This is an elementary step by step outline. It gives specific points on how to sell employers on hiring ex offenders. (South Carolina believes this is the key to jobs for former offenders.) It is geared to Employment Service staff in institutions but very transferable to other situations.

It also has a good rundown of ways to locate persons for follow up. It contains job bonding information and a typical press release that can be adapted to local use.

cation of work and needless annoyance of businesses with repetitive calls and other solicitations of openings. However, most programs report that when job development has been provided by an outside agency, the results have not been satisfactory. They report that the traditional staff and techniques, lack of aggressiveness, and status quo approach of the employment service have not been successful with their clients. The Employment Service Offender Program has attempted to correct these faults and in certain areas, notably Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and Wisconsin, is providing leadership in the range and quality of supports for the ex offender. (See p. 14.)

If the employment service is to be the central employing agency there must be a rehabilitation oriented staff supported by adequate resources including follow-up counseling, work with pardon and parole commissions, among others, and use of former offenders as follow up counselors.

One program that is having good results with a "one-stop" approach is that of seven Louisville, Ky., agencies.[1] Delivery of Clearinghouse services begins in the state's prisons. The Kentucky State Reformatory at LaGrange, near Louisville and the state's largest institution with about 1,800 inmates, operates its pre-release program with two employment specialists, one of whom spends 3 days a week at the Clearinghouse securing job information for those awaiting separation.

Although most releasees make arrangement on their own for jobs when they get out, usually through friends and relatives, all prisoners in the pre-release stage are told of the Clearinghouse's capabilities should they be needed.

At first, jobs were sought for all inmates coming up for parole. Since only about half of those who receive a hearing are actually paroled, this was not continued. Nevertheless, the director continues to receive letters from inmates prior to their parole hearing.

The Clearinghouse delivers most of its services to probationers and parolees—both those who are out of work and those who want better jobs. It physically sets up shop at the U.S. Parole offices on the one day a month federal parolees must report, and state parole officers refer all clients with an employment problem to Clearinghouse offices nearby. Up to 40 individuals with job-related difficulties may be interviewed each day.

The job search is handled in two ways—through use of the agency's on-site scanners of open positions in the employment service's computerized job bank, and through the Clearinghouse's own job development work.

Job development includes regular mailings to chief executives (or key hiring officials) of separate clusters of companies—not mass mailings, in which the response might choke the agency's ability to follow up with a quick visit. About one out of three employers show interest and the staff schedules at least one employer visit a week.

With each Clearinghouse interviewer handling an open caseload of about 60 clients, the time left for promoting the program with employer visits and tracking the ex offender's job success is insufficient, the director says.

However, state records indicate the follow up problem may not be serious. In the fiscal year ended June, 1973, parole was revoked on only 16.3 percent of Kentucky's parolees, one-fourth of whom were sent back for new convictions.

Support Work Projects. In tight labor markets, training, placement, and job development tend to be less effective than when there are many unfilled jobs. In the Manhattan pretrial project, placements dropped from 270 in the first year to 135 in the third in a declining job market, even though, judging by placements per referral, efforts improved. Fewer employers are willing to interview or hire ex offenders as long as qualified candidates without criminal records are available.

When jobs get harder to locate as unemployment rises, some offender projects develop employment projects of their own. This step has been taken by one project which has negotiated a contract to clean the New York Public Library and also operates its own messenger service. Program participants are employed and learn some job skills.

The response of many projects is to rely more heavily on the counseling part of their program to induce sufficient change in participants' lives. "But behavioral change that is not reinforced with tangible benefits is not likely to last. And without a job or comparable setting to structure, support, and validate positive social behavior and goals, there

[1] From an article in "The Offender Employment Review," National Clearinghouse on Offender Employment Restrictions of the American Bar Association. Further information can be obtained from Jack Fevurly, Community Programs Officer, U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Prisons, Employment Placement Office, 402 U.S. Courthouse, Louisville, Kentucky 40202. See also Chapter 2, p. 11.

is no visible or convincing evidence that a lawful life is a better life." [4]

C. Placement

Staff placement efforts will vary according to whether the program takes only youth, or varied ages, whether it takes only first offenders, and what their status is, i.e., parole, probation, work release, or other. Depending upon the selection criteria, clients will differ in their ability to complete the job search on their own.

For employment to have a significant effect on the individual, the job must meet his needs. Usually, this means employment in which he has an opportunity to succeed and grow.

The staff should attempt to place program participants in jobs suited to individual goals, abilities and skill levels, with location and other job conditions beneficial to the participant. A quality job has at least a minimum entry-level wage, a built-in career ladder or the potential for upward and lateral mobility, and offers the employee a sense of self-worth. Placing any adult in a low-paying, dead-end job such as sweeper, dishwasher, or mailboy cannot be expected to have a positive effect on the individual.

Some community job placement programs build in mobility when placing ex offenders. The program places an individual in a low-skilled, moderate-paying job for a few months to give the individual necessary income and at the same time develop successful employment experience. During this period the job developer located a job that matches more closely the skills and interests of the ex offender and offers an opportunity for upward mobility.[5] New releasees are placed in the jobs opened up until they also can move to better jobs.

Thus successful employment frequently takes place in a series of jobs rather than in one. The ex offender or any individual with little employment history may try a number of jobs before he stabilizes. What appears to be a lost employee to an employer may, in fact, be a successful rehabilitation experience.

Job Retention and Stability. According to the Pownall study of released Federal prisoners, the median stay on the first job was 4 months; on the job held longest, it was 8 months.[6] Released inmates require a median of 29 days to find their first job. Project Crossroads found that almost all former participants were working in non-Crossroads jobs within 4 months after project termination. Statistics from the Federal Bonding Assistance Demonstration Project Program reveal that young offenders left bonded jobs within 3 months. (As just mentioned, high job mobility does not necessarily mean failure; it is often part of a stepping stone process in which a temporary dead-end job is taken until a more desirable opening is found.)

Little information exists on employment stability, or the percentage of time an individual works during the year. The few studies that gathered such information indicated that offenders who had participated in projects with manpower services spent a greater percentage of their post-project year working (than the last pre-project year not in an institution) and they received higher wages in more highly skilled positions.

Why do ex offenders leave their first job within a few months? The findings have implications for working with the employer, for making appropriate placements, for client goal assessment, and for planning and conducting training in the attitudes and skills necessary to work with other employees and supervisors.

There is a correlation between an individual's characteristics (age, marital status, employment background, educational achievement) and general employment success. (See Chapter 1, pp. 3–7.) There is some evidence that pay increments—size and frequency—are related to job retention, although there is controversy over the extent to which initial salary is related to hiring. Status can be as important as salary in determining satisfaction and stability. Employees are often fired for reasons of attendance, punctuality, sick leaves, and vacations.

Longevity and satisfaction in a job (important to both employee and employer) may be dependent upon the social and production pressures which the ex offender faces. Projects found that "lower-class" offenders often feel uncomfortable in "middle-class" environments, which eventually affects both the preferred geographical location of jobs and the

[4] *Manhattan Court Employment Project Report, July-December, 1972*. Vera Institute of Justice, New York, N.Y., p. 2.

[5] This technique has been used with good results by parole officers working with parolees from the Maryland corrections system, who start by placing an ex offender in perhaps a car wash firm and end by locating a job for him with upward potential at a large shipbuilding firm.

[6] Pownall, *Employment Problems of Released Prisoners*, p. 156. Over 85 percent of the releasees had been out for 6 months or more.

specific employer chosen. Projects also found that training a man in restaurant skills does not necessarily enable him to cope with the production pressures of the "grill." An offender's inability to get along with his fellow workers or to keep personal, off-the-job problems from influencing work behavior are particularly important.

One of the keys to job retention is supervision, regardless of background of the employee. According to the Pieczenik report, supervisors in general have been unable or unwilling to cope with on-the-job behavior of offenders and other disadvantaged persons that is incompatible with the effective operation of the firm. Operation Pathfinder, one of the few offender research and development projects working with the employer, encountered resistance when employers were asked to change work practices: employers did not want outside training for their supervisors; they did not want "research" done with them; they did not want to become involved in a government program.

D. Working With The Employer

The focus of employment programs for the offender has been on the offender—who he is, what he needs, how he can be "processed" into a successful employee. Relatively little attention has been paid to the gate-keepers who will ultimately decide whether an ex offender is to be hired or fired—the employer and the personnel supervisor.

The offender program and the employer have a mutual interest in the quality of performance of the former offender. Each has a need for him to succeed on the job. Each needs the other's acceptance to stand any chance of achieving the level of success each expects. Employers want maximum productivity from their employees in the interest of their business. In employing an offender, a firm may entertain a level of risk beyond what it might otherwise be willing to accept; it may also encounter certain administrative problems.[7] At the same time, an employer can count on his work release employees to be on time and sober. The amount of risk and inconvenience an employer is willing to accept and tolerate will depend upon how much assistance and cooperation can be expected from the program staff.

Staff Responsibilities to Employer. A member of the staff should see every prospective employer to:

(1) Introduce and explain the program.
(2) Become acquainted with the employer, his firm, the personnel officer and supervisors.
(3) Learn about the kinds of jobs and availability, skill requirements, working conditions, pay and benefits, labor relations, and other factors bearing upon job placement.
(4) Develop arrangements for maintaining liaison with the employer. (Some programs arrange to telephone every week for a month or so after placing an employee.

Programs that have job development and job placement functions should supply the newly employed offender with supportive services for on-the-job and off-the-job crises and assure the potential employee that these services will be forthcoming. Case service personnel should respond promptly to any crisis situation reported by an employer and take whatever action is appropriate.

When an employee leaves, either for a better job or because he was fired, try to retain the employer as an ally for future placements by making sure you have followed the preceding procedures.

What Can Employers Do? Some employers seek to hire ex offenders and some run training programs to upgrade their skills; others stand behind traditional barriers. Employer involvement can range from attending a meeting on removing employment restrictions on hiring, agreeing to hire an ex offender, to planning a complete program for a firm. A firm's labor force, its personnel policies, its experience in hiring minority groups, the structure of jobs in the company, the geographical location of jobs, and a variety of external considerations must be evaluated in order to determine the appropriate approach to hiring ex offenders and which ex offenders should be hired for particular jobs.

Just as there is considerable variation in ex-offenders' characteristics, so there are a number of approaches employers can pursue to provide employment. For example, eliminating an arrest question on a job application form requires relatively little activity, while in-prison training involves an extensive commitment.

Employers and supervisors need to work toward (1) designing programs that prepare the offender to meet realistic production demands, (2) creating a direct link between programs and a waiting job, and

[7] For example, work release status can surround employment with complications (e.g., necessity for obtaining permission to work overtime, restrictions on driving or traveling across state lines) not usually associated with the normal employer-employee relationship. How sensitive employers are to these complications and how willing they are to accommodate them can be crucial determinants in the outcome of the use of work release.

(3) designing a work environment that is mutually beneficial to offenders and employers. Employees can remove restrictions on hiring;[5] for example:

(1) Firms can eliminate the question, "Have you ever been arrested?" from the employment application. Many companies have done so without any noticeable changes in their personnel.

(2) Banks can obtain a waiver from the FDIC and can also hire ex offenders who have not been convicted of "restricted" crimes.

(3) There are a variety of ways for firms with bonding requirements to hire ex offenders, for example:

—Companies that require bonding can be asked to reexamine those jobs which do not involve any security risk and remove them from the bonding program.

—The U.S. Department of Labor has a program to provide bonding for ex offenders.

—Companies can develop a consortium to self-insure ex offenders in a number of firms.

—The leading bonding companies can be requested to evaluate the worth of certain restrictive procedures.

(4) Companies can review their personnel policies with regard to employment of ex offenders. These individuals should be asked to explain their records and have them reviewed in an objective fashion. For example, many companies upon investigation have located numerous ex offenders who did not disclose their records and who were excellent employees. The main thrust of such an examination should be to determine the bearing of a police record on employment and which ex offenders, if any, are affected.

Skill Training and Education. While service agencies can provide a variety of supportive services, individual companies are often best equipped to develop employment-related programs. In particular, they can initiate basic education and skill training activities. Many of these programs simply involve extensions of those developed for other disadvantaged groups. The *Far West Sourcebook* briefly describes a number of these programs.

The National Alliance of Businessmen sponsors a JOBS contract program designed for employers who wish to provide a high degree of skill training and support services for disadvantaged individuals. A contract with U.S. Department of Labor reimburses the employer for extraordinary costs of providing such training and support services.

The JOBS optional program is an on-the-job training program funded by the Department of Labor and conducted by a State OJT agency. Most private, profit and non-profit companies and organizations are eligible. The program has a requirement that at least 50 percent of trainees must be disadvantaged, as defined by the U.S. Department of Labor; a recent ruling removes a former exclusion of ex offenders. A company or organization enters into a contract to conduct training in its facility. Payments to employers are in the form of a fee based on one-half of the starting wage of the trainee. The number of weeks training is dependent on the complexity of the skill. This determination is keyed to occupational codes in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. For more information contact the local Division of Employment Security Office.

[5] See James W. Hunt, James E. Bowers, Neal Miller, *Laws, Licenses and the Offender's Right To Work: A Study of State Laws Restricting the Occupational Licensing of Former Offenders*, American Bar Association, National Clearinghouse on Offender Employment Restrictions, 1973.

Removing Offender Employment Restrictions: A Handbook on Remedial Legislation and Other Techniques for Alleviating Formal Employment Restrictions Confronting Ex-Offenders, American Bar Association, National Clearing house on Offender Employment Restrictions, Washington, D.C., Second Edition, January 1973.

Expanding Government Job Opportunities for Ex-Offenders, American Bar Association, National Clearinghouse on Offender Employment Restrictions, Washington, D.C. A pamphlet summarizing state laws and practices restricting public employment of former offenders and recommendations for their modification.

PART III

PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

INTRODUCTION

Part III offers information on how to (1) plan, develop, and evaluate a project and (2) organize and manage a staff. Since the topics are so broad and the specific requirements differ according to the type and size of the project, the discussion tends to be general. However, where possible the authors have related the material discussed to a specific manpower services issue or example. Their aim is to indicate problem areas, suggest procedures and offer some guidance on the structure for operating the job placement or training aspects of the program.

Many of the principles and procedures mentioned are well-known and time tested, particularly in the field of planning, organization, and staff management, but they are included because in too many instances they are not followed. The principles discussed apply generally but information on practices applies primarily to a publicly funded project large enough to require a director and several staff members, and a formal evaluation system.

Chapter 5 outlines project development and includes a planning flowchart whose form and content can be adapted for specific situations. Sample planning charts are shown in Appendix D. The chapter also includes project organization, staff management and recruiting, relationships with other agencies and groups and records management. Data, records, and records management are treated very generally because of the wide variance in requirements for different projects (institutional, pretrial, work release, etc.). More specific information is often given in project reports. A few are referenced below. Busher's work, for example, presents an excellent listing of data elements needed in a work release program; the *Handbook on Community Correction in Des Moines* indicates the data requirements by including copies of the data collection instruments used in their pretrial intervention activities; *Project Challenge* at Lorton, Va., and the *Draper Project Reports* illustrate the data needed in a similar manner.

Chapter 6, Evaluation, while drawing from most of the works mentioned below, is based largely on Glaser's *Routinizing Evaluation*. The chapter emphasizes the importance of defining success and establishing useful objectives. It also indicates a cost-benefit approach that may be applicable in many projects.

The major sources and references used in Part III include:

Ordering Time to Serve Prisoners: A Manual for the Planning and Administering of Work Release by Walter H. Busher, National Work Release Study, American Justice Institute, Sacramento, California, June 1973, U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Technical Assistance Division. U.S. Government Printing Office Stock No. 2700–00205. A comprehensive study of work release programs useful for anyone planning or operating a work release program.

Routinizing Evaluation by Daniel Glaser, Center for Studies of Crime and Delinquency, National Institute of Mental Health, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, GPO Stock No. 174–00319. An excellent guide needed by anyone concerned with the evaluation of offender projects and programs. Theory combined with how to do it.

Evaluation Research by Carol H. Weiss, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1972. A basic manual of the evaluation of social programs. The guidelines given are non-technical. A useful introduction to evaluation with numerous examples but not geared particularly for offender programs.

Evaluative Research by E. A. Suchman, Russel Sage Foundation, New York, 1967. A textbook on the problems of evaluation and their solution. The approach is academic rather than how to do it.

Project First Chance Final Report, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare and Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. A report on a manpower project at the South Carolina Department of Corrections, Columbia, South Carolina, June 30, 1966 to June 30, 1969. The report details the inmate skill training and job placement, and the operation of an associated halfway house. The report gives recommendations in the areas of administration, staffing, planning, training, job devolpment, and linkages with other agencies.

A Handbook on Community Corrections in Des Moines, U.S. Department of Justice, Law Enforce-

ment Assistance Administration, National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice, U.S. Government Printing Office Stock No. 2700–00219. A 1973 Exemplary Project report outlining the coordinated approach to handling adult offenders by the Fifth Judicial District, Department of Court Services, Des Moines, Iowa. A detailed account of operations for pretrial, probation, and residential programs. It includes cost of the programs.

Project Challenge, the *Draper E & D Project Reports*, and *A Review of Manpower R & D Projects in the Correctional Field* are annotated in the Introduction to Part II.

CHAPTER 5. PLANNING AND PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

A. Planning Tools

Three useful tools for planning are a planning task list, a planning chart, and an information resource list.

The planning list items may be categorized into groups such as information collection, definition of objectives, and determination of functions. This ordering is usually based on time phases. Tasks in each group should be listed along with time estimates for completion of each. The beginning or completion of some tasks will be dependent upon the completion of others and this should be indicated on the list. The list should be revised and expanded as planning proceeds. It is an adjunct to a planning chart and may be part of it.

The planning chart should indicate task interdependence and show the tasks completion schedule. In a complex effort, subcharts and subtask lists may be needed for planning separate tasks or even subtasks. The planning chart will be general initially, but as thinking progresses and different approaches are tested, it is refined and expanded until it can be used to aid in allocating planning time and resources effectively. It should reveal need for schedule revision and reallocation of resources and current planning or operations status. Abbreviated examples of planning charts are shown in Appendix D.

Figure 2 is a flowchart of a project planning procedure. It depicts a three-part planning system: the first part is preliminary planning such as that for preparation of a preliminary project proposal, or working paper; the second part is planning in detail —essentially an expansion of the first part—such as might go into a detailed project plan; the third part consists of any additional planning needed in the implementation of the project. The paragraphs that follow amplify the planning indicated on the chart and provide some examples. The numbers on the blocks of the flowchart are for block identification only and are shown in parenthesis when referred to in the text.

B. Critical Dates

The most important date in the development of planning schedule is the date by which a plan or proposal must be submitted to be considered for funding. That date must be obtained from the sponsor and all planning must work back from or look forward to it. Thus the planners need to find out:

(1) When the finished plan or proposal must be submitted.
(2) Submission date requirements for any reports or preliminary work.
(3) Content and format requirements.
(4) Review requirements and deadlines prior to submission of the finished plan or proposal.

This type of guidance is often published. Minnesota's Crime Commission for example, provides an annual *Grant Program Information Booklet* that describes in detail the grant application process, program, fiscal and statutory requirements, and grant conditions. The booket also includes a sample completed application.

C. Objectives

The first step in planning a project for offenders is to formulate and reformulate the problem until the project objectives are clearly and precisely defined and the best course of action is chosen. In many instances the course of action is given and the matter is one of planning the most effective and feasible means of implementation. In either case a clear statement of the project objectives is essential to project definition, mandatory for project guidance, and required for project evaluation.

The success of a project usually is measured in terms of the degree to which the objectives are realized; therefore, the objectives should be down-to-earth, as specific as possible, and quantifiable as to degree of achievement, accomplishment, success, or failure. When preparing the list of objectives, thought must be devoted to the measures to be used in evaluation and the data needed to provide the

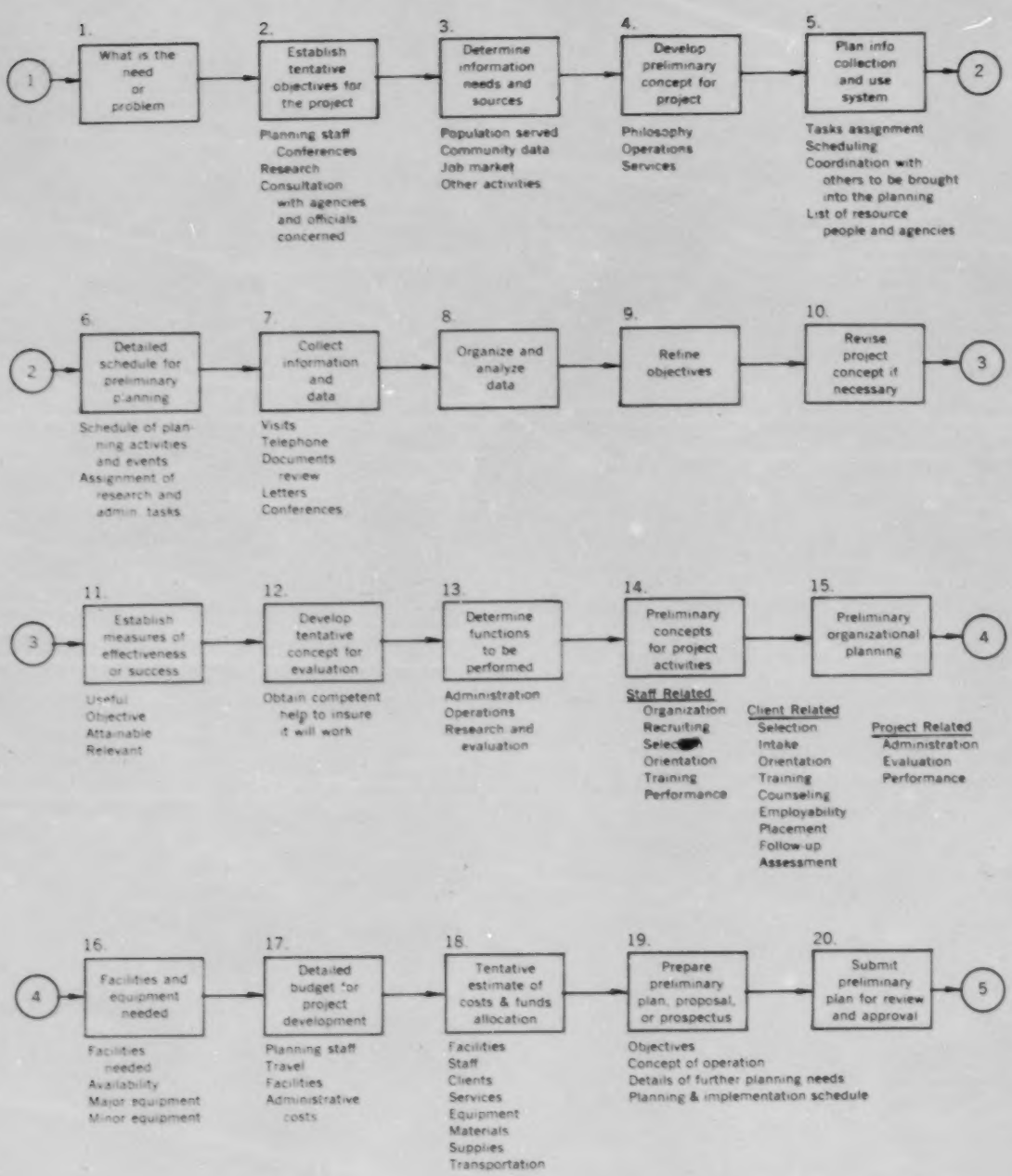

Figure 2. A Planning Procedure Flowchart.

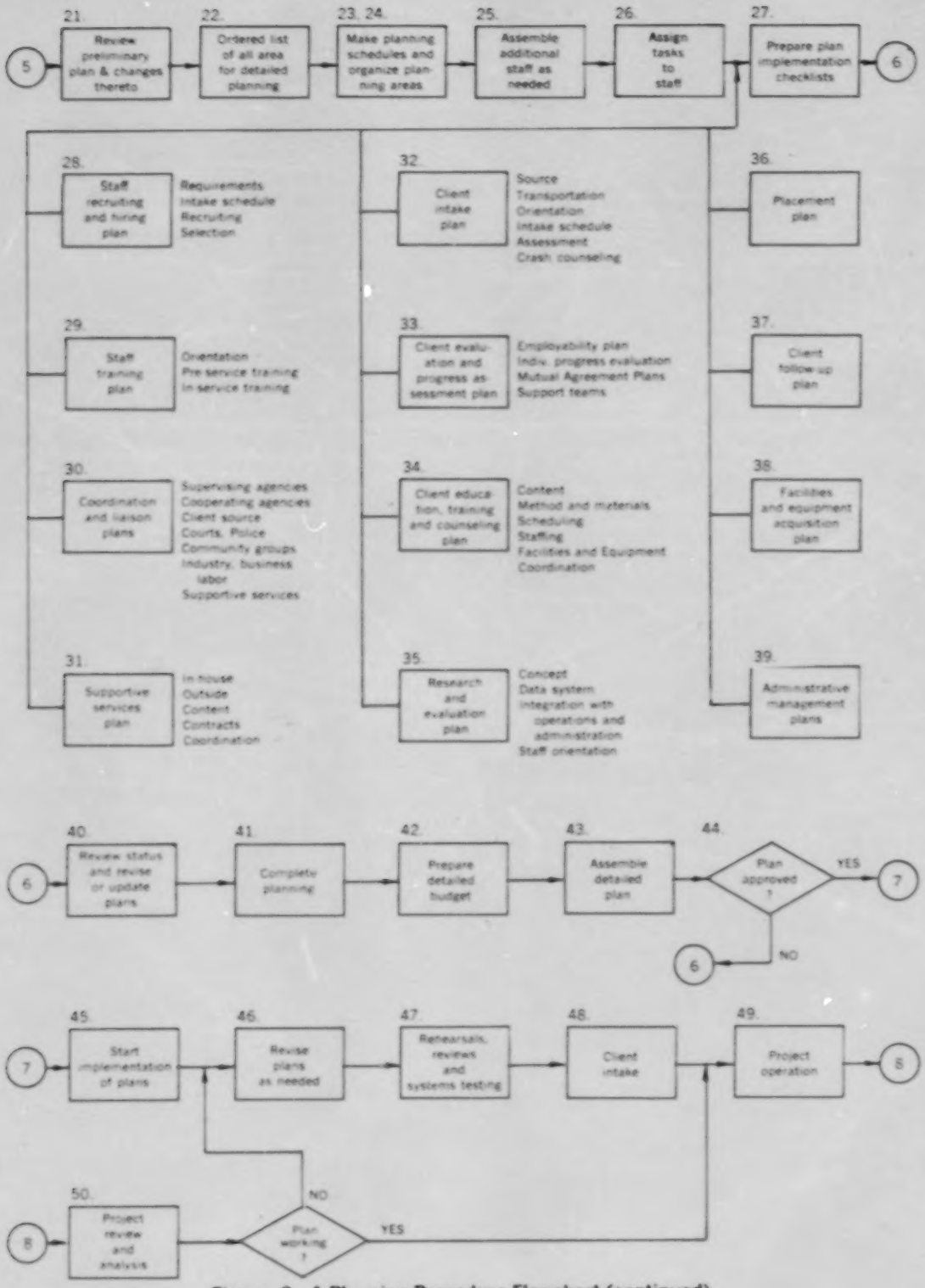

Figure 2. A Planning Procedure Flowchart (continued)

measures and how it will be collected. (See Chapter 6.)

The key to establishing suitable project objectives is that they be useful. They need to be expressed in terms that are subject to measurement and that tell the staff what must be done. An objective of "reducing crime in the community," while legitimate, is too general to provide guidance to planners, operators, or evaluators; furthermore, it would be difficult to determine whether any subsequent crime reduction was due to the project or to other factors. "Reduction of recidivism in the target population" is also a legitimate goal but it falls short of providing guidance and has not proved to be a useful criterion for measuring project effectiveness. "Providing skills that will allow meaningful integration of the offender into the community" while also worthwhile, does not provide guidance or suggest evaluative measures.

Such general objectives have to be narrowed to more immediate, specific objectives that are meaningful to the project staff and the participating offender. This leads to objectives such as "train 200 offenders for employment in building industry trades" and "provide the project participants with sufficient job-getting and job-holding skills and attitudes to result in a subsequent employment rate equal to that of other building trades workers in the community."

The procedure for reaching suitable goals begins by establishing the over-all objectives and proceeding through sub-objectives until useful and readily quantified objectives begin to appear. These can be recognized because they will indicate what specifically needs to be done and suggest data that will indicate the degree of success.

D. Information Collection Plans

Manpower projects for offenders and ex offenders will need information on: the population to be served; the community in which the project will operate and to which the offender will be released; the specific job market into which the offender will be released; and information on any other factors in or out of the community that will influence the project—such as what others are doing in conducting similar projects, or who can be of special help on the board of a project. An example of needs and possible sources of information is shown in Table 2. The first step is to determine what guidance and information is needed and where to get it. A schedule of activities and procedures for these tasks is desirable.

Early consultation is needed with those who are likely to have a decisive influence on the effectiveness of the project, or whether it will be conducted at all. It would be very difficult to conduct a pretrial intervention project, for example, without the concurrence, approval and cooperation of the courts and prosecutors. A MAP program will require approval of courts and corrections, and work by corrections and parole offices. Similarly, it would be very difficult to establish a halfway house in a community aroused in opposition to it. Contact with the local employment service, employers, and labor organizations is essential in a job placement program. Follow up will require close contact with parole officers, law enforcement agencies and employers, as well as the client.

When establishing tentative objectives (2), (See Fig. 2) the planners consider alternatives and determine the best means to reach those objectives; they will estimate project size, the resources needed, and project contents. The result will be a working hypothesis—who the participating offenders will be, how many there will be, what they will need, what services will be provided and how. This should lead to a preliminary concept of operations that generates additional information needs. Consultation with the sponsors is usually advisable when the preliminary list of objectives and a tentative concept of operations have been made.

The information collection plan (5) should include a system that will allow the data collected to be used efficiently whether that data goes into notebooks, memos, individual memories or a computer data bank.

Since time is always limited, a detailed planning schedule (6) is essential to insure all planning areas are covered in the time available and to the required depth. This means estimating how long a planning task will take. If the length of time needed to complete a task is uncertain, the best person to estimate it is the person who will get the task.

The person making the planning schedule can then outline the tasks and assign them to the staff available. If the schedule indicates staff or time available is insufficient and additional staff connot be obtained, the tasks will have to be reviewed and some either reduced in scope or eliminated.

The final schedule should be reviewed by the staff that will execute it. It should include some slack time toward the end since final coordination

TABLE 2. INFORMATION NEEDS AND POSSIBLE SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Information Need	*Possible Source*
Guidance on objectives and courses of action	State and area LEAA offices; city, county, and state manpower planning agencies; criminal justice planning agencies; corrections agencies and officials; courts; law enforcement agencies and officials; sherrif; chief of police; ex offender organizations.
Community resources	Business organizations
Facilities	Volunteer organizations
Supportive services	Community Health and Welfare agencies
Public support	Local government agencies
	Civic and fraternal groups and organizations
	Education agencies and schools
	Industry and labor officials
	News media
	Professional groups and organizations
	Religious groups and organizations
Job Market	State employment services*
	Local employment services
	Private placement agencies
	Business and industry people
	Labor officials
	Chamber of Commerce*
	Economic Development office
	News media (want ads)
	Occupational Outlook Handbook (DOL).
Other factors	
Complementary programs	
Competing programs	
Funding	

*Often make job market studies.

requirements, assembly, editing, and typing time are usually underestimated.

Collecting the information (7) can be done by telephone, visits, letters, documents research, and miscellaneous legwork. In general the collection effort should begin with sources most readily available and close to home—the local employment service for job market data, local employment service and business for placement possibilities, similar local projects and their supervising agencies for operations ideas and problem areas.

In planning information collection, thought should be given to records that the staff will need for analysis and planning. A good system is the collection of information by the staff member who will use it in later planning tasks. Information can be disseminated at staff conferences. All items that will be needed later and may have an impact on project design or operation should be identified and filed so as to be retrieved readily.

E. Review of Objectives and Concepts

Having collected, ordered and analyzed the information and data (8) the planning group reviews the tentative objectives (9) and concepts for project operation (10) and makes any necessary revisions in the light of the information. As the objectives are established, evaluation measures must be refined and project evaluation planned, at least tentatively (11). Expert help may be needed at this stage to insure that the evaluation measures are useful, that the data needed can be collected, and that the evaluative techniques envisioned will work. This means what will be evaluated, who will do the evaluating, how the evaluating will be done, and what impact it is likely to have. Assistance can be obtained from actual or potential sponsors, agencies that are in the business of supervising similar projects, and perhaps local educational institutions having staff members or departments concerned with social research and knowledgeable in evaluative techniques. Finally there is the rapidly expanding field of literature on offender project evaluation that can lead to helpful information. (See Chapter 6.)

F. Functions and Activities

What functions will be performed by the project and what the project's activities will be evolve from the project objectives and concept.

One classification of the major functions is Operations, Administration, and Research and Evaluation (13). Another possible breakdown is:

(1) Client Operations and Processing
(2) Planning and Project Development
(3) Administration, Business, and Budget
(4) Management and Control
(5) Evaluation

Regardless of the classification, the names used should cover the major functional areas of the program and indicate major compartments of the organization.

Analysis of the functions to be performed and the related activities and tasks to be conducted, in con-

junction with the client intake and outgo will indicate the number and type of staff required and their organization (15). One way to determine staff requirements is shown in Appendix E.

The estimate of facilities and equipment needed (16) is usually a fairly straightforward job once planners have determined the number of clients and staff who must be accommodated and what they will be doing. They may range from one office and its contents to administrative offices, classrooms, shops, and other facilities in a variety of buildings. Facilities estimates will usually reduce to the amount of space needed and how it should be arranged. A good measure for most facilities planning is square feet of floor space. The funds available will have some influence on facilities and equipment so guidance from sponsors will be needed before planning exceptional space or sophisticated and expensive equipment.

Where a facility is to be located in a community can be as important as the space available. If it is to be a halfway house activity or work release center from which the offenders will seek work and go to jobs, it should be in or near centers of employment and have ready access to public transportation. Such a location also allows the staff to respond rapidly when an employer is having a problem with one of the participants. One project visited was located in the downtown area YMCA close to many potential employers and with readily available public transportation to industrial sites that had moved to the outer city and to vocational schools and other services. If the project is to provide services for clients will will not live in the facility, it should be located where the clients are. Older hotels and office or commercial buildings can often be a source of space in downtown areas. Cost estimates (17, 18) for facilities should be obtained from the sources—realtors, vendors or state agencies likely to provide them; remodeling cost needs to be estimated. The estimate of equipment needed may be more complicated since it is more varied. One method is to have each staff member concerned with a major activity prepare his needs list and obtain the costs; for example, the brick-laying instructor, the personal counselor, the placement counselor, the cost accountant, the business manager, and the kitchen manager. A second method, when such staff is not available, is to visit a similar project and see what they have. The project planners can also look at plans prepared for other projects and revise them for their own use.

The planners should then be able to assemble a preliminary plan (19), and submit it for approval (20), or use it as a base for more detailed planning. The degree of detail needed in the preliminary plan will depend upon the requirements of the sponsor.

G. Detailed Planning and Implementation

Approval of the preliminary plan, and perhaps funding for detailed planning, is the signal for continuing of the planning but in greater detail. This is indicated in Figure 2 in blocks 21 through 39, in which planning continues to produce a detailed plan for implementation of a project.

A master plan and planning schedule should be prepared, based upon the preliminary plan and any new information (23). Staff planning areas should be crystallized (24) and planning and implementation tasks assigned. Additional planning and key staff should be obtained in accordance with the preliminary staff recruiting plan. The staff recruiting plan can now be developed in detail (28). Tasks should be assigned, planning deadlines given, coordination requirements indicated, and status reports requirements specified. Appropriate subplans (28-39) should be prepared in accordance with the masterplanning and implementation schedule. The central planning staff or director should coordinate the activities of the different planning sections, review status periodically and revise plans as necessary (37). A detailed budget completes the planning and a detailed plan can be assembled for approval.

If the planning has been adequate, implementation consists of doing what was previously planned. As implementation proceeds there are the same reviews of status and plans are revised as needed (42). Rehearsals, reviews, and tests of some activities may be advisable to insure they will run smoothly—orientation procedures, for example—so that when the clients arrive all the staff knows what to do and how to do it, and has the necessary tools to perform. This implies organizational planning, staff management, staff training, and project control as indicated later in this chapter.

H. Organizational Planning and Staffing

Organizational planning is needed before a suitable organization can be developed, before staff training can be planned and before staff can be

hired. The planning includes analysis of all activities and responsibilities; this entails examination of all the tasks that must be performed to start and to conduct the project. The tasks are organized by common characteristics or by functions to indicate the groups of the organization.

To determine staffing needs the planners determine the specific activities included in each function to be performed during a given time period, the expected number of times the activity will be repeated during the period, and the number of people required to do the work.

The planners obtain this information by analysis of the functions and activities of the project, including management and supervision, and review of the character and organization of similar projects. Job descriptions, including the individual qualities required to perform the job, should then be prepared.

As the project gets under way, the planned lines of communications and coordination are compared with the actual flow of information and control to see if there are flaws in the organizational structure and if reorganization is needed.

Insofar as possible the following principles of organization should be followed:

(1) Ultimate responsibility and authority rests with one individual—the project director.

(2) No staff member should have more than one supervisor. He may have any number of advisors.

(3) No supervisor should lead more than five staff members or groups if the groups must interact with each other. (Experience has shown that five subordinates is usually the optimum span of control.)

The Team Approach. In establishing the organization and assigning functions in a manpower program for offenders and ex offenders, the project director should consider the team approach in which selected staff members, augmented by others concerned with the client, work together to help the client solve problems. Such teams have been particularly effective in training and placement programs, such as those conducted by the MDTA Skills Centers, where the client becomes closely associated with more than one person on the staff. The team usually consists of the client's primary counselor, primary instructor, job developer, and any other key people concerned. The team has formal status. Whether it is called an employability team, a support team, or something else, it works with the client to develop an employability plan, monitors and periodically evaluates his progress and his needs, makes recommendations in his case, and works with him to revise the plan as needed. One of the team members is appointed chairman to coordinate the team activities. The composition of the team is flexible; it is varied, augmented, or reduced as needed but to be most effective maintains a core membership that meets regularly and work together for the client's benefit.

The team furnishes or coordinates those services the offender needs to be most receptive to the program. It is the focal point of planning related to the individual and of information on his status.

I. Staff Recruiting and Selection

Experienced project directors generally agree that the quality of a project depends primarily on getting a good staff and that one should start looking for staff candidates no later than 6 months before the project is to start. The planners must design a recruiting plan that includes a schedule indicating when each staff member is needed. Coupled to this is the preservice orientation and training plan. Since staff recruiting steps must be taken early in the planning phase, the development of an organizational structure and the preparation of job descriptions are priority tasks.

Check for hiring leads at manpower programs, poverty programs, ex offender organizations, parole officers, corrections departments, Employment Service Offices, Human Resources departments, and the like. Place advertisements in newspapers and organization publications. Community organizations and the project advisory committee can also help.

Applicant screening and selection techniques must be devised. Interview guides should be used, in addition to job application forms, to insure comparable data is obtained on all applicants for a position. Interview boards should include managers, administrators, or senior staff with whom the potential staff member will be working. A three man panel seems to be common for interview of applicants. A rating system can be devised to aid in making a choice among applicants.

The most often mentioned qualities for a staff member who will be working with offenders are:

(1) Competence—the ability to do the job or learn to do it.

(2) Dedication—the desire to work in the field and devote his energies to it; a strong commitment to human services.

(3) Maturity and demonstrated responsibility.
(4) Character—convictions, strength, and self-confidence.
(5) Empathy—able to establish rapport with different kinds of people.
(6) Flexibility—can adapt readily to meet needs of the job.

Additional qualities can include the ability to operate in bilingual and bicultural situations since in some areas many offenders do not speak, read or write English and come from diverse cultural backgrounds.

The selection of staff members should be coordinated with any agencies that are closely associated with the program. These agencies can often be helpful in recruiting and selection. In training programs in an institution, for example, assistance of agencies such as a Board of Correction and the State Vocational Education Office is essential. Their concurrence in the selection of staff may be advisable if not required; such agencies, by virtue of their experience, may be of significant help in selecting the best candidates.

J. Staff Management

Effective staff management is aided by:

(1) A suitable organizational structure with clear lines of authority, assignment of responsibility, and distribution of functions.
(2) A detailed description of the authority, responsibilities, and duties of each staff member.
(3) Written policies and procedure for project administrative and operational activities.
(4) An organized procedure for staff orientation and training.
(5) Frequent meetings of the staff to review operations and discuss problems.
(6) Open communication throughout the organization and with supportive or cooperative agencies and offices.

There is often objection, if not resistance, to all but the last of this list on the grounds that they smack of rigidity and authoritativeness, destroy flexibility, stifle innovation, and compartmentalize the project so that communications suffer. But by and large, projects that take the time to describe their organization, operations, policies, and individual jobs in written form better understand what they are doing and function more effectively than those that do not. They are also in a better position to cope with the inevitable changes in staff as people leave and others take their place. Finally, they are able to provide specific written advice to other people who may need information on establishing a similar program.

In a complex project with a large staff the procedures are mandatory to prevent confusion and duplication of effort. A project with a small staff of competent and compatible people can afford to be more informal but would still find them useful.

Organization. A major requirement of an effective project is an understanding by the staff of the lines of authority and areas of responsibility in the organization. Each facility, project or program should make and keep current an organization chart. The chart should show key personnel and offices, lines of authority, distribution of functions, lines to outside agencies, such as superior and subordinate facilities and outside supportive agencies. The chart should be posted and copies should be available for staff, participants and visitors. In conjunction with this, a list of the project staff, with addresses and telephone numbers, is a useful timesaving tool. Also useful are organization charts of outside agencies the project staff will be working with. These can usually be obtained from the agency itself.

Authority, Responsibilities, and Duties. Each project should have descriptions showing the authority, responsibilities and duties for each job in it. These documents should guide staff members in performing their duties effectively and in concert. Position descriptions should include coordination requirements. Each staff member—professional, paraprofessional, nonprofessional, volunteer—should have a job description so that each knows precisely what his job is. When responsibilities, authority, and duties change, as they will in any dynamic or new project, the descriptions should be changed. Key position descriptions are usually summarized in the staff handbook.

The job position descriptions are particularly important when hiring relatively inexperienced staff who will be doing jobs that do not permit close supervision—jobs where the staff member will be working on the street, with employers, or with other agencies. The job descriptions are also useful when the type work being done is in a new field where there are no established mores or patterns. Here they not only help the individual starting on the job but provide research information and guidance for similar projects that may follow.

Policies and Procedures. Each facility should have a policies and procedures document, preferably in a staff handbook form. The handbook should explain the philosophy of the project, guide the activities and conduct of the staff, and serve as a primary source of information on routine administrative and operations procedures. It must be designed so that it is a useful tool and be kept up to date. A copy should be available for each staff member. A staff handbook is particularly useful to acquaint new staff with a project.

Some candidate subjects for a staff handbook include:

Project Description
Procedures
Conduct
Hours and Schedules
Outside Employment
Holidays, Vacation
Grievances
Salaries
Employment Policies
Promotions
Resignation and Termination
Travel
Expense Reimbursement
Publicity, Publications
Inservice Training
Benefits
Special Problems
Linkages

Staff Orientation and Training. Staff training is essential before and during a project. The most effective staff training is that conducted at the project site and during the project, with outside specialists or programs being brought in as needed for specific assistance.[1]

Each project that is large enough to warrant it should establish a Staff Development Committee of key staff to analyze problems and plan and conduct staff training. In a small project an individual may undertake the task.

Orientation and training of new staff members deserves particular emphasis. Effective training includes:

(1) Orientation to the offender and his world, to the correctional and criminal justice requirements, traditions, practices, strengths and weaknesses and to the project objective and procedures.
(2) Introduction to and familiarization with supportive agencies, community services, and others concerned with the project and orientation on the establishment and maintenance of good relationships with those agencies, e.g., custodial staff, police, courts, employment service, vocational rehabilitation. A staff booklet can provide much of the information.
(3) Familiarization with the characteristics and background of the participating population.
(4) Methods of instruction for persons qualified by subject matter experience rather than by instructional experience. Local educational agencies may be useful in providing assistance.
(5) Training on counseling, since many will fall into the counseling role by virtue of association with the offenders in the project. Local educational, human resources, and manpower agencies may be sources of assistance.
(6) Using both formal and informal meetings for training and to disseminate information that may improve the effectiveness of the project. This may include lessons learned on the project, lessons from other projects, and other information.
(7) Location, development and use of materials, texts, literature, films, tapes, and other training or administrative aids that will make the project more effective.
(8) Identification, location, or development of useful motivational and instructional methods and techniques.
(9) Development of objective means of self-evaluation and individual client progress evaluation.

K. Relationships With Other Agencies

Project staff members must often work closely with the staff of other agencies and with business, labor and community groups and individuals. Positive relationships should be established and maintained with such groups and agencies to get their full cooperation and assistance. They may include people from agencies such as corrections, police, courts, parole, employment services, city and state manpower agencies, and health and welfare agencies. Usually it is a matter of bringing these people into the project early—in the planning stage—and main-

[1] *MDTA Skills Center Directors Guide*, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Division of Manpower Development and Training, Washington, D.C., 1 June 1972.

taining communications. Failure to do so can lead to serious conflicts and misunderstandings detrimental to the project. In one such case the staff reported that:

> "In the early steps of our R & D project, we failed to orient members of the line (custody) staff to our project and to familiarize them with the philosophy and objectives of our operations. This failure on our part complicated our working relationships with a few members of this staff." [2]

To avoid such situations, the project director must insure:

(1) That the project staff is thoroughly aware of the duties, responsibilities, regulations, and customs of others who must also deal with the offender. While the staff must receive guidance on what to do when conflicts occur, they must also be free to deal with staff of other groups to settle problems amicably and personally.

(2) That other concerned staff (particularly those at the top) are fully informed on the objectives and activities of the project. If staff members of other agencies can participate on the project, they should be encouraged to do so. The associated staffs should be brought in on planning, be apprised periodically of the status of the project and be notified immediately of any changes with which they may be concerned.

(3) That he keeps abreast of any potential conflict between the staffs and does something about it.

A useful tool for the project staff is a document listing the appropriate agencies and individuals that the project might deal with and the names and telephones of key people in them that may need to be contacted. As a minimum there should be such a list for outside supportive services.

L. Former Offenders on the Staff

Hiring ex offenders for project staff is highly recommended when qualified persons can be found or can be qualified in the staff-training time allotted. Such persons have insight into the problems of offenders that most outsiders lack. They are familiar with the participant's milieu and can add weight to the rehabilitation effort associated with training and placement because they speak from personal experience. A competent ex offender on the staff may often lead to finding other equally valuable ex offenders for the project.[3]

The person needed is an ex offender with a socioeconomic background similar to that of the participating offenders, with the mental aptitude and emotional stability to do the work, and the personal warmth and commitment to human services to do the work. Training furnishes the skills needed in areas such as counseling, efficient work habits, and paper work. Training in work organization and the self-discipline conducive to efficient performance is particularly important. It includes planning work activities and independent follow through. Most ex offenders have not had experience in these areas and will need help.

One problem that may arise from selecting an insufficiently mature ex offender of the same background as his client is that the two may become stuck on the point of their fight against the "establishment" or "the Man," and counseling sessions become a litany of woe and mutual rallying against the "system." The establishment becomes the scapegoat, no behavior change is demanded, and no responsibility is accepted, though the staff member may teach the participant how to beat the system. The ex offender staff in this situation needs to admit commonality, use it, and move beyond it to fulfill the goals of the project.[4]

At the opposite extreme is the ex offender who becomes "professionalized" and "respectable" to the point where he wants no identification with the offender and prefers to drop his ex offender role.

The pressures on an ex offender working as part of the establishment can be high. They can present role conflicts and inconsistencies that are difficult to overcome. Some of these can be handled through group meetings where the problems are discussed and their ramifications investigated. When they are understood, the ex offender staff can better cope with them.

When hiring former offenders the director should consult appropriate agencies to insure consideration of laws, regulations, or policies that may present obstacles or cause problems and take the necessary action to overcome the obstacles.

Some criteria for the hiring of ex offenders will differ from that used in hiring regular staff. An

[2] *The Draper Project Final Report*, Rehabilitation Research Foundation, Elmore, Alabama, vol. II, p. 10

[3] Boston Court's *Selection and Training of Advocates and Screeners for Pre-Trial Diversion*, p. 41.

[4] Ibid.

example of such criteria and a rating scale to assist in selection is shown in Appendix F. Different situations may dictate different criteria and other screening devices. The judgement of those doing the selection and their feelings about an applicant will often be overriding factors in the hiring.

Adequate and well-planned orientation and training is as imperative for the ex offender staff member as it is for the professional staff. While much of the training will be the same, special emphasis will be required in areas where the ex offender's background does not provide adequate knowledge or practice. The same may be said for the inexperienced professional. The gaps in the paraprofessional and professional staff experience are often complementary and projects have concluded that both need training and that the training must be planned and executed deliberately, as well as conducted informally through routine association of the two.

Finally the paraprofessional ex offender needs the same opportunities for development and advancement on a career ladder that other paraprofessionals and the professional staff should have.

M. Advisory Committees or Board of Directors

Every project should have an advisory committee and in the case of a private nonprofit corporation, a board of directors. Such a group is particularly important to a new project. The committee or board should meet periodically with key project staff to determine the status of the project and furnish advice, guidance and support.

The composition of the board or committee is important, since the board can provide the support to make a project successful. Membership should include:

(1) Ex offenders or persons with a background similar to that of the client population.
(2) Representation of minority groups that may be in the client population.
(3) Labor union and business members who can help with employment.
(4) A lawyer, since serious legal problems can arise.
(5) At least one dedicated member who can devote much time to the project, develop a vital interest in it and be a driving force — in essence be its godfather and protector.

A key factor in an effective board is to use it in solving project problems rather than merely to report to it periodically. Board members should have specific responsibilities so that they develop a personal interest in the project.

N. Volunteers

During the past decade, many urban and suburban communities have developed formal corps of volunteers who are screened, trained, and available for use by a community agency that needs them. Volunteer corps contain persons representing a wide range of knowledge, skills, experience, and availability. Volunteers are available for sponsorship in general (befriending), teaching, tutoring, job-finding, and resources development (locating speakers, educational and recreational opportunities, and raising money for special purposes). Most volunteer bureaus have persons available who will provide transportation to clinics, recreational events and community activities. The services of social workers, clinicians, accountants, and other professionals are often available through volunteer bureaus.

Where a suitable organization to provide volunteers does not exist someone can usually be found who will organize volunteers specifically for offender aid. The project staff needs to make their needs known to the community by explaining the project to key people and the community at large.

Planning for volunteer recruitment, orientation and activities should receive as much attention as that for the regular staff. If he is to be effective, the volunteer should be considered staff and treated as such, be given specific assignments, authority and responsibilities, and where possible be in a promotion hierarchy.

The Volunteer's Book published by the Offender Aid and Restoration group is an excellent example of guidance for volunteers working with offenders.[5] It includes a description of problems of the offenders, guidelines for volunteers, aids and resources in the community, description of successful techniques and pitfalls, and examples of how OAR volunteers operate.

A useful overview on volunteers as a resource is given in *Perspective on Correctional Manpower and Training*, a staff report of the Joint Commission on

[5] *OAR Volunteer's Book*, Offender Aid and Restoration, 414, 4th Street N.E., Charlottesville, Virginia 22901.

Correctional Manpower and Training, Washington, D.C.[6]

A basic reference on organizing and managing volunteer programs is *Guidelines and Standards for the Use of Volunteers in Correctional Programs*, produced by LEAA.[7] It includes an extensive outline of references, resources, and training aids.

O. Project Participants

Project managers should consider using project participants to aid in staff activities when such work is not talent or labor exploitation but a motivational, training, or rehabilitative technique; individuals respond positively when given responsibility.

The director should receive feedback from the offenders in the program and participants should have a means of influencing the program in an advisory capacity. The participants should be encouraged to elect a council to advise the project director and act as a grievance committee. This council or committee should have a staff advisor for guidance and control.

P. Community Relations

The public and local government officials need information showing that the offender project in their community has value and merits support. Concurrently, programs must promote a climate of confidence in the community so that eventually offenders will be able to seek work and be judged solely on their qualifications for that employment. Community support can dissolve incipient problems and help solve project problems in areas such as transportation, space needs and employer acceptance.

The staff should be oriented on their part in establishing good relationships with the community. It is essential that in providing public information that staff members be accurate, honest, and keep the director informed on their activities. One project, for example, uses a "PR Contact Report," a single sheet report that any staff member can submit to report what he considers a public relations activity. Essentially public relations is public education. Citizens can be expected to respond only in terms of what they know and feel. In the absence of knowledge there will be little understanding and there may be considerable fear and opposition. Public relations is also concerned with education and harmony with persons who have a particular interest in local government affairs, community service, and criminal justice procedures.[8]

A principle of good public relations may be stated as follows

"Public relations efforts should have as their prime objective the development of effective citizen support for participant-serving activities; they should not be crisis-oriented but should be planned and executed in a deliberate, continuous and straightforward manner." [9]

Public relations also includes community participation. A primary thrust in Project Challenger, for example, was active solicitation and cooperation of local industry in preparing outlines, teaching plans, and providing consultation which served to keep the program geared to the labor demands of the business and industrial community.[10] The community participants thus have a stake in the project and support it.

The continuance of an offender project, funded initially by Federal money, often hinges on its being taken over by local or state agencies and funded by local or state funds. This takeover hinges on the public in general and local officials (such as mayor and councilmen) in particular knowing the value of the project and working for its support. The primary purpose of the project evaluation should be to demonstrate this value—preferably in terms of cost/benefits.

Q. Records Management and Control

The director should be able to reply promptly to requests for information on all aspects of his project, its effect on individuals and the community, costs, use of funds, benefits, and data on the participants and former participants. Information may be needed by people concerned with the project, the public, press, or government officials, or by cooperating agencies and other projects.

Although some procedures for record keeping must be designed and followed, and the resistance

[6] May be obtained through the American Correctional Association.

[7] *Guidelines and Standards for the Use of Volunteers in Correctional Programs*, U.S. Department of Justice, LEAA, Technical Assistance Division, Washington, D.C., 1972.

[8] Busher, *Ordering Time To Serve Prisoners*, p. 160.

[9] Ibid.

[10] *Project Challenge*.

of busy staff must be overcome, the time and effort invested outweighs the trouble and costs. This is usually realized the first time information must be supplied that is not on record and must be laboriously reconstructed under panic conditions.[11]

No administrator can expect his activity to be recognized, accepted, respected, and perpetuated until he is able to present it in convincing terms. Thus he needs to establish a process that can deliver routinely quantified information on every significant aspect of the operation. Without such information the manager can only proceed by feel, impression, guesswork, and chance. Furthermore, when bad decisions are made, the reason for making the wrong decision can be traced.[12]

Suggested steps to develop a plan to provide useful statistical data are [13]

(1) Identify and list information needed by the staff to plan, administer, and evaluate each program activity and the data needed to assemble the information.

(2) Identify and list information and specific data needed by supervising agencies, officials, departments, organizations and individuals to whom information or data must be supplied or may be supplied.

(3) Design a system that will produce the data required for administration, operation, evaluation, and information.

(4) Design a system for storage and retrieval of information.

(5) Periodically review these information needs and eliminate the collection of data that is not used and is of no significant historical or research value.

In the design of the data system, the planners should consult agencies whose existing data systems are related to the offender programs, e.g., police, department of corrections, courts, manpower, employment service. It may be advantageous to use the same format for the same data so that the systems are directly compatible.

The data system set up should be designed so that it can be readily computerized even though it may be operated manually. Setting up the system for automated data processing is valuable to a manual system because it will reveal errors and inconsistencies. The mathematical treatment envisioned for the data should be tested to insure that the routines are error free. The data format should be determined in detail before data collection forms are designed.

When relating to other systems, the definitions of items should be carefully reviewed to insure terms (to include magnitude and dimensions) are compatible and files will match.

Project planners are again referred to Glaser's *Routinizing Evaluation* for guidance on integrating research, administrative and operations records and on automation of input data.

The project director and his staff will have to establish file systems for records and determine their retention period. Retention period information should be provided by the sponsor or state. In case of doubt as to what the retentive period should be, the following should be safe:

Property and financial records—5 years
Project operation status—3 years
Client records—end of follow up plus 1 year

In any project there are measures of particular importance that a director can use, singly or in combination, for the on-going evaluation of status and performance. Graphic displays of these measures can show trends, changes, or departures from the norm that warrant attention. The most obvious example is a graph showing actual cumulative expenses and planned cumulative expenses that shows at a glance the financial status of a project.

Depending upon his needs and his resources the project director must identify those particular measures he considers of special importance in the management, control and evauation of his project and determine how he can best monitor them.

R. Planning Guidance for an On-Going Project

Guidance. A project director of an on-going project must have timely planning guidance or information so that he can plan his activities and provide information for other concerned agencies. He needs to know about:

(1) Sources of funds and anticipated level of funding.

[1] Carol H. Weiss, *Evaluation Research*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.

[2] Edward Suchman, *Evaluation Research*, New York: Russel Sage Foundation, 1967, p. 61.

[11] Busher, *Ordering Time To Serve Prisoners*, p. 153.

[12] Ibid.

[13] Ibid., p. 154.

(2) Client source and intake rates.
(3) Client characteristics and needs.
(4) Changes in the job market requiring changes in training, placement and follow-up activities.
(5) Availability and effectiveness of supportive services.
(6) Changes in other projects and in other agencies that will influence the operation.
(7) Research and evaluation requirements.

Long Range Planning. In addition the project director needs to look 1 to 3 years ahead so that he can give timely consideration to

(1) Potential changes in the job market.
(2) Potential changes in the criminal justice and corrections system that will have an influence on the project.
(3) Plans for replacement and disposition of obsolete equipment.
(4) Plans for expansion, contraction, relocation or curtailment of operations.
(5) Staff replacement and procurement, staff development, and if possible, integration into the criminal justice and corrections field to provide a hierarchy of positions with career and promotion potential.

Critics have charged that there has been very little proper evaluation, no establishment of standards or criteria by which to measure degree of success or failure, and no way of knowing whether offender rehabilitation programs are working and are worth the investment.

In many projects the evaluation techniques or findings have been found faulty when subjected to rigorous examination, in others the evaluation results could not be generalized to make them universally applicable because the persons, conditions, and circumstances were unique to those programs at a particular time. In most, the evaluation has consisted of a presentation of operational statistics such as number entered, number trained, number placed, number employed, and number recidivating. In some cases, outside evaluators have been hired to evaluate projects after the fact, with the evaluation design being dependent upon the limited project data available or reconstructed data. However, research and evaluation experience and literature has expanded during the 1960's and early 1970's and is leading to a better understanding of the role of research, the purpose of evaluation, and the treatment of data. Publications on offender project evaluation are now available for a project director to use to assess his own needs and to obtain or train competent evaluation teams. Glaser's 1973 publication, *Routinizing Evaluation*, is an excellent example. Much of this chapter is based upon it. *Evaluation Research* by Carol H. Weiss is a useful basic text on evaluative research in social programs.[1] Suchman's work, *Evaluative Research*, provides a more comprehensive, academic and technical approach.

CHAPTER 6. EVALUATION

A. Levels of Evaluation

Suchman proposes five categories of evaluation; classified in order of the criteria and their complexity. They are summarized as follows: [2]

(1) *Effort*. Measurements made in terms of cost, time, and people employed and yielding primarily the project's economics. An example is a study of the effort spent in a job training program; the equipment, people, training hours required to achieve a level of vocational skill, and cost.

(2) *Performance*. Determining whether the immediate goals of a project are being met. In the case of a vocational training program, the success criterion would be the number of clients reaching the required proficiency within the training time allotted.

(3) *Adequacy of Performance*. Limited determination of the value of the project to the offenders. For example, the number who achieved the desired proficiency in training and proved to be employable in a related occupation after release.

(4) *Efficiency*. This stage involves both cost effectiveness analysis and determination if the activity (training and employment) made any significant difference; this usually requires comparison with a control group that did not receive the services.

(5) *Process*. Elaborate research design to study the links between processes and results to find the contributions of processes to objective achievement. Process analysis in this classification is concerned with the attributes of the project related to success or failure, analysis to determine who is benefited or not benefited by the project and the degree of benefit, conditions affecting the project, and the effect produced by the project.

Another classification system is *process* evaluation and *impact* evaluation. Under this classification process analysis is concerned with the operating statistics of the project, those that describe accomplishments in terms of the immediate activities, while impact evaluation is concerned with the outcomes or long-term effects of the project.[3] The process evaluation here includes the fourth level and in some cases the fifth of Suchman's categories.

The level used and how elaborate the evaluation is depends upon the type of program, funds available for evaluation research, the expertise of the people designing and conducting the evaluation, and the availability of valid standards and criteria. If valid standards of performance are developed, many projects can simply determine whether they meet the standards, with no elaborate evaluation design being required.

Formal evaluative research requires special knowledge and skills.[4] Therefore, a project director should obtain competent analytical help early in project planning to design an evaluation system. It should also be available during the project to insure the evaluation design is going to work and is not being subverted.

B. Steps in Evaluation

Evaluation should be an on-going process beginning with the planning of the program.

A good evaluation program includes: [5]

(1) Specification of the project goals and objectives, identification of the assumptions underlying the objectives, and determining the relationships between objectives.
(2) Development of an evaluation design that specifies what information is needed and its format, what comparisons are important, and what controls are necessary to enable determination of the extent to which the project objectives are met.
(3) Formulation of a data collection system adequate to fulfill the information needs specified in the design.
(4) Collection of the data.
(5) Design of a system of data management and processing and analysis of the data.
(6) Interpretation, presentation, and dissemination of the results.

[3] Peter H. Rossi and Walter Williams, eds., *Evaluating Social Research*, New York: Seminar Press, 1972, p. 110.
[4] Busher, *Ordering Time To Serve Prisoners*, p. 163.

C. Data Systems

A preliminary to evaluation in correctional programs is a store of basic data about the characteristics and activities of inmates, probationers, and parolees, continuously recorded, kept up to date, and expanded to include each stage of the system. Currently there is no adequate common data base to allow valid comparisons of different projects, development of valid, broad-based statistics with a common meaning, and development of criteria and standards to guide future projects. If information elements could be made standard, coded and stored in a modern information storage and retrieval system, at least on a statewide basis, it would help considerably in providing a useful body of research data that cuts across various projects and programs. Project directors in states that have developed usable data systems should relate their data collection and data format to that of the state.

The standardized offender projects data systems beginning to emerge at the state level should provide common data elements within the state; they should help guide evaluation to provide more meaningful results and a better basis for future decisions on project development. The possibility of integrating the state and local data into a valid national offender project data system appears remote except for those items that, after study, are shown to be compatible regardless of source. In addition to developing offender research data systems and associated research and evaluation offices, some states and other prime sponsors are establishing offices with the technical competence to provide evaluation assistance, information, and guidance so that projects can be adequately evaluated and subsequent findings and conclusions can withstand critical analysis. State Manpower and LEAA agencies are the primary contacts for information.

Where a system of guidance, technical assistance, and data management do not yet exist, the project director may be responsible for design of all aspects of evaluation, whether he arranges for an independent agency to conduct it or does it with his own staff; the sponsor may approve, disapprove or suggest changes but the data elements used and their format is not constrained.

D. Integration of Evaluation into Planning and Operations

A project evaluation component should be an integral part of planning. The project planners and evaluation staff must work together in the planning stage, developing the evaluation design, measures that are suitable, and data systems.

Evaluation staff and project staff also must work together during the course of the project. The latter must know what the former are doing and why they must have the data being generated for them. During orientation, project staff should be introduced to the evaluation rationale, the techniques being used, and the part the staff will play.[6]

Periodic assessment must also be conducted to insure that the evaluation plan will work and to obtain early findings that can be used to improve the project.

E. Standards and Criteria

A simple and useful evaluation technique is to measure program achievements against established standards. The major obstacle to extensive use of this technique is that few generally applicable standards have been established and situations can vary so that it is very difficult to develop suitable standards by replication. For example, in an offender employment effort the obvious standards is percent successful placements, but there are so many factors influencing the placement rate (the rate of unemployment, for one) that no one standard can apply everywhere at all times.

If the aim of a program is to reduce some type of deviant behavior in the community, the best criteria of the program's effectiveness are objective or "hard" data on the post-treatment behavior of the program's clientele. If subjective ("soft") data is used, any conclusions must be tentative and qualified until their validity is verified.[7]

Preliminary conclusions on a few objective measures of behavior in the community, derived from short term follow-ups on small samples of early releasees, may often warrant greater confidence than subjective data from larger samples for whom no hard data exists.[8] Nevertheless, subjective data can be useful because they allow consideration of important factors not indicated by the hard data collected.

There are different kinds of success for a project. Sometimes all are related to the primary goal, but they represent different degrees of accomplishment

[5] *Handbook on Community Corrections in Des Moines*, p. 61.

[6] Pieczenik, *Review of Manpower R & D Projects*, p. 73.

[7] Glaser, *Routinizing Evaluation*, p. 18.

[8] Ibid., p. 19.

of that goal. Sometimes different kinds of success are related to different goals (such as reducing drug dependence, reducing crime, and increasing employability). Ranking them by relative importance may be difficult, but it is useful to assess them all because accomplishing some kinds of success may be preferable to accomplishing none. Finally, it is important to recognize different kinds of success because the kind that can be measured validly or usefully varies greatly from one circumstance to another.[9]

Glaser concludes that defining success can cease to be a stumbling block if one recognizes that: [10]

a. There can be multiple kinds of success, each with respect to a different goal.

b. One must try to determine what behavior of officials and the staff of people-changing agencies is rewarded, because that which is gratifying tends to become the actual goals in their work. The goals that are not proclaimed are latent goals, and they may influence behavior of personnel more than the manifest (stated) goals because they can be private, more personal goals exerting more pressure. For example, the latent goal of an organization may be to survive and grow rather than to serve. Latent goals need to be made manifest and justified. Then research to determine the extent to which goals are achieved can be made relevant to officials and have a better chance of producing usful evaluative routines.

c. One should seek definitions of success that are useful rather than sacred, or habit. This applies to definitions of recidivism, abstinence, employment and other concepts in terms of which success may be defined for specific goals.

d. The usefulness of a definition of success is a function of the feasibility of measuring it, as well as its implication for goal attainment.

One useful way of deciding upon a criterion is to consider first the kind of change that can be most readily accomplished for a client. This change may be a subgoal or means to a major goal. The clients for whom the subgoal can be achieved may then be evaluated separately, with respect to the major goal, comparing those who had help with individuals who had no help in achieving this subgoal.

In many studies success is measured as if it were an "all or nothing" matter with no consideration of degree—one rearrest, for example, resulting in a classification as "failure" and no arrest in classification as "success." Such a measure is limited in its sensitivity. Greater sensitivity to the degree of success or failure can be obtained using continuous measures such as subsequent confinement time, rather than dichotomous measures such as reincarcerated/not reincarcerated.

Glaser thinks that:

> Probably the most sensitive criterion of the effectiveness of correctional endeavors with any group of offenders is the time they are confined during a follow up period . . . . . By reflecting the severity as well as number of penalties, the total amount of confinement time provides a crude index of societal outrage at the conduct of various groups of released offenders.[11]

Though subsequent confinement time is preferable to a dichotomous measure (pass/fail-success/failure), the time served for new convictions is crude because of inconsistencies in society's reactions to criminal law violations. Some who revert to crime are caught and some are not; some "beat the rap" though just as guilty as others who are convicted. Some who are convicted get light sentences while others get heavy sentences, although their previous record and current crime may be the same. While such diversity warrants caution, the inconsistencies of the criminal justice system can be presumed to be randomly distributed, and if large groups of similar offenders from different programs are compared in a follow-up period, the differences in their *average* period of subsequent confinement should reflect the differences in the programs.[12]

F. Sources of Data

Evaluations can be credible only if expressed as a percentage, rate, correlation, or other statistical conclusion, although this type of formulation does not in itself guarantee that the evaluation is correct. Sometimes it is not clear that a particular treatment is responsible for the outcome regardless of the outcome statistics.[13]

The best source of data for evaluation is objective follow up information. A 1 – 3 year follow up is desirable.

Care should be exercised in using questionnaires and tests. For example, intelligence tests are useful but cannot be considered valid predictors of learn-

[9] Ibid., p. 14.
[10] Ibid.
[11] Ibid., p. 23.
[12] Ibid.
[13] Ibid., p. 49.

ing ability for the groups concerned—disadvantaged, uneducated, and sometimes other-culture background.

The popular practice of citing individual cases to support or to oppose a project or technique is often effective but unsound; these cases only illustrate or suggest an explanation for an outcome and are too easily selected at will to support a position.

Finally, caution should be exercised when using data from different sources or times even though they may bear the same name or identification because the same word, phrase, or measure title can be defined differently. Sometimes, even though defined in the same way, they may be computed differently. In these cases the data will probably not be compatible though on the surface they appear the same. Recidivism rate is one example, since it can be computed many different ways and under different rules; placement rate is another example of a term that can mean different things in different places; in one project it may be the percentage of total participants placed and working successfully for a period; while in another it may mean the percentage of those completing the program that are placed in a job. The former procedure should give a lower figure than the latter and comparison of the two would not be valid. Therefore analysts should review the details of computation and definition ground rules before comparing data.

G. Cost/Benefits Approach to Evaluation

With the problems inherent in determining whether a program is effective, it could be admitted that the effectiveness is unknown but that the program is cheaper, e.g., it cannot be proved that a project reduces recidivism; at the same time is cannot be proved that it increases recidivism. But it can be proved that conduct of the program is significantly cheaper in real and social costs than the alternative it replaces. Common sense indicates that the program is worthwhile. Where such situations can be proved, the money savings can be a most forceful and convincing argument.

For example, "For a family supported on the average Aid for Dependent Children (AFDC) grant ($165.31 per month) in the community, the county share of the grant is $28.75. If the mother is arrested and her two children are placed in a children's shelter, the cost to the county jumps from $28.75 per month to over $800 per month . . . The county must pay $131 per month to support the mother in jail and approximately $350 per month to support each child in the children's shelter . . . " [14] The question is: if the county is able to pay $800 to provide incarceration for mother and child care, rather than $28.75, could it design a program that would allow AFDC to continue and use the savings ($800 minus 28.75) to provide community-based alternatives?

The simplest type of costs/benefit estimate is the trade-off between the added cost of some supplemental service to an on-going project and the reduced cost due to diminished subsequent time. The cost is that of providing the additional service; the benefit is the estimated reduction in social cost expressed as the difference in confinement cost of those who receive the service and those who do not.

In estimating cost of confinement it is appropriate to base it on the costs of the most frequently used facility. Alternatively, when several institutions are extensively involved in subsequent confinement, one may select the one considered typical. For a more precise estimate, cost data can be procured from all the institutions concerned and a weighted average computed that is proportional to the relative frequency with which it is used for subsequent confinement of the participants.[15]

There is sometimes objection to the use of the average cost per inmate per year to estimate confinement expenses in cost/benefit analysis since so many of the expenditures do not change with small fluctuations in prison population. But if cost/benefit analysis guides policy, its conclusions should, in the long run, affect the total population of correctional institutions, resulting in the closing of facilities and institutions despite possible increases in state populations and crime rates. Accordingly, if cost/benefit analysis is an effort to guide long term policy, it is appropriate to use total annual confinement cost per inmate for the estimation of costs and benefits.[16]

When comparing groups or alternatives in a cost/benefit analysis the only costs that need to be considered are those that are different. Total costs comparisons are not required—only those costs of services or activities that are different or extra.[17]

The cost/benefits analysis results of a hypothetical supplementary service consisting of a vocational training program is shown in Table 3. The table shows that for youthful auto thieves there is a large saving (or profit) in dollars; the efficiency (benefits

[14] M. Montilla, "Opportunities for Action Research in Community Corrections," Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency, Vol. 6:132, July 1969.

TABLE 3. SUPPLEMENTARY COSTS AND CORRECTIONAL CONFINEMENT BENEFITS OF A VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAM (VTP) FOR VARIOUS TYPES CLIENTS IN A CORRECTIONAL AGENCY (HYPOTHETICAL FIGURES).

Cost-benefit items	*Type of Client*			
	Youthful recidivist auto thieves	*Recidivist unspecialized offenders*	*Alcoholic forger*	*Professional robbers and burglars*
Cost of VTP				
Average number of courses per client	3	6	4	3
Average cost per client (at $250 per course)	$750	$1500	$1000	$750
Social costs as subsequent confinement:				
Average subsequent confinement time of clients without VTP	3 years	2 years	4 years	6 years
Average subsequent confinement time of clients with VTP	1½ years	1 year	4 years	7 years
Benefits, as confinement time saved	1½ years	1 year	0	–1 year
Monetary benefits (at $4000 per year confinement costs)	$6000	$4000	0	–$4000
Profit (benefit minus cost)	$5250	$2500	–$1000 (loss)	–$4750 (loss)
Efficiency (benefit/cost ratio)	8.0	2.7	0	–5.3

SOURCE: Glaser, *Routinizing Evaluation*, p. 31.

divided by cost) indicates a high return for the investment.

Listing different types of offenders reflects the belief that "the most fruitful evaluative research" is that which identifies particular types of offenders rather than all of the people in the program concerned. Related to this is the desirability of research searching out homogeneous subgroups that do not have high success rates or high failure rates; that is, centering on the categories that have about a 50 percent success rate, or altering the criterion to one of partial success attained by about half of the cases and perhaps attainable by significantly more.[16] It is usually difficult to show success improvement where the success rate is already high and it is usually difficult to create marked improvement where the success rate is markedly low. The thought is to devote resources and effort to groups or areas where there is likelihood of significant success and avoid devoting time to groups or areas where the payoff is little—avoid programs aimed at offenders who will succeed regardless of what is done or for those who will fail regardless of what is done.

More comprehensive cost/benefits analysis may include consideration of other costs such as:

(1) Taxes lost to the state and welfare benefits paid because a person is confined and cannot work.
(2) Police work costs.
(3) Court and parole costs.
(4) Cost of offenses (damages and losses).
(5) Loss of production because the offender is confined.

Table 4 shows the results of a hypothetical cost/benefits analysis for alternative programs in which Dr. Glaser illustrates the inclusion of additional social benefits. Taxes lost are not shown because they would come from money in the "production foregone" category. Estimates of welfare payments because of confinement are not shown but could be included legally since they would be an independent cost such as "cost of arrests" or "cost of court or parole violation hearing." The table tends to maximize the cost/benefits information. While the cost of "Production foregone" may be too intangible for ready acceptance by some policy makers, the remainder of categories are generally accepted.

It is generally understood that the longer the follow-up period for which benefits are to be assessed, the more accurate the assessment. But the additional cost of longer follow up combined with the need for results usually limits the follow-up periods. One question usually neglected, however, is when the follow-up period should begin for benefits data computation: if the programs or groups compared

[15] Glaser, *Routinizing Evaluation*, p. 29.
[16] Ibid.
[17] Ibid., p. 33.
[18] Ibid., p. 21.

TABLE 4. COSTS AND ESTIMATED TOTAL BENEFITS OF ALTERNATIVE CORRECTIONAL PROGRAMS FOR NON-ADDICTED AND NON-ALCOHOLIC ADULT ARMED ROBBERS ON FIRST FELONY CONVICTION (HYPOTHETICAL FIGURES).

Cost-benefit items	*Alternative Programs*		
	Prison and parole	*Regular probation*	*Intensive services probation*
Cost of program components for their average duration:			
Imprisonment before first parole (at $400 per month)	$ 5600	—	—
Regular parole and probation supervision (at $50 per month)	$ 1000	$ 1500	$ 1600
Supplementary services (paraprofessional, emergency residence, financial aid, etc.)	—	—	$ 2000
Total Program Cost	$ 6600	$ 1500	$ 3600
Subsequent social costs in monetary terms:			
Damage done by known and inferred offenses [a]			
Costs of arrests [b]	$ 6400	$ 2400	$ 1600
Cost of court or parole violation hearings [c]	400	300	200
Cost of confinement [d]	600	400	100
Production foregone (at $300 per month for time locked up or unemployed)	8000	4000	3600
	1500	6000	3000
Total Social Costs	$30400	$13100	$ 6900
Benefit from alternative to prison and parole	—	$17300 [e]	$23500
Profit (benefit minus cost)	—	$15800	$19900
Efficiency (benefit/cost ratio)	—	11.5	6.5

a At $50 per misdemeanor, $500 per non-violent felony and $2500 per violent felony.
b At $100 each.
c At $200 each.
d At $4000 per year.
e $30400 minus $13100.
SOURCE: Glaser, *Routinizing Evaluation*, p. 38.

all have the same average duration of incarceration, the follow-up period begins on the date of release to the community. If, however, the groups compared differ in the average duration of incarceration, it would be improper to compare costs benefits data only from the date of the offender's release into the community for both groups. That would ignore the in the community during their period of confinement.[19]

In comparing two groups, for example, one which averaged 13 months' confinement before release and the other one month but receiving special treatment, the social cost due to damage done by "known and inferred offenses" would be none for the first group until the follow-up period extended beyond 13 months.

This cost/benefit approach has a definite appeal to those whose primary and more immediate concern is with cost rather than rehabilitation. That group will include a fair portion of taxpayers and many local governments.

[19] Ibid., p. 39.

PART IV

WHAT LOOKS GOOD

INTRODUCTION

Program evaluation is still in its infancy, LEAA validation reports began only this year, and the authors' research turned up no perfect model against which a program can be measured or upon which to base plans. Nevertheless, there are effective techniques and approaches that can be adapted to a particular area's needs, as outlined in the previous chapters.

The following chapter summarizes and focusses the basic themes stated earlier—flexibility, development of liaison between staff of penal institutions and community resources, program content directed toward the development of responsibility for oneself and others.

Recent programs have demonstrated the value of a comprehensive approach to employment and training problems of offenders. There should be a balanced program of manpower services at each stage of the criminal justice system—pretrial, probation, incarceration, parole, and post release. These concepts are best exemplified in the diversified community corrections programs developing in various parts of the country. While there are sufficient indications of their utility in reducing the isloating effects of institutions and focussing on the reintegration of offenders into their communities—the ultimate test of the effects of the correctional process—the trend toward community corrections is likely to continue if for no other reason than that such programs are less expensive than incarceration.

The community-based program will be successful, however, only to the extent that jobs are available for offenders and ex offenders. In our society, regular employment is the accepted way of assuming responsibility for oneself. Employment not only affects an offender's ability to support himself without recourse to crime but employment is also a major influence on the nature of his associates, his use of leisure time, his conception of himself, and his expectations for the future. It is thus a major rehabilitative tool. It is doubtful that private industry alone can produce satisfactory changes in unemployment rates among urban youths and ex offenders in many areas. There are a number of public employment strategies whose adoption depends upon community priorities; transitional jobs that would serve as stepping stones to permanent jobs in the public sector; permanent jobs that would provide a program of education, experience, and training needed for advancement; temporary job slots for offenders immediately after their release from confinement; and jobs that would serve as an alternative to incarcreation for misdemeanants. We have barely begun to take action in these areas.

CHAPTER 7. ELEMENTS OF A MODEL PROGRAM

Offender manpower programs will vary according to definition of the problem, objectives, resources available and how they are used, but some over-all principles begin to emerge from talking to program directors and analyzing their reports. Although there is no consensus on every issue, these concepts can serve as signposts for those who are planning and operating programs. Once again, each community must make its own decision.

A. Program Objectives

An effective manpower services program has the over-all goal of improving its clients' employability. It makes this objective more specific by such subgoals as providing more marketable work skills and greater familiarity with the job market and the methods of obtaining and retaining employment. General objectives have to be narrowed to more immediate, specific objctives that are meaningful to the project staff and the participating offender. This leads to objectives such as "training 200 offenders for employment in building industry trades" and "provide the project participants with sufficient job-getting and job-holding skills and attitudes to result in a subsequent employment rate equal to that of other building trades workers in the community." Objectives are explicit, clearly stated, and capable of being measured.

A top flight program is continually testing its objectives to see whether they need revising.

Programs fall somewhere between two extremes. One extreme postulates that a large proportion of ex offenders need food, shelter, clothing immediately (particularly upon release from an institution) and then they need a referral bureau that connects them with existing resources. This type of program works with its client not more than a month. It works best for those whose employment or other problems are not severe or complicated. It is easier to administer and cheaper than a comprehensive residential program. Programs that are not supported by sufficient staff to do more than a superficial job of screening of applicants, supervising and counseling program participants, and facilitating prisoner movement between the institution and the community can only afford to work with offenders posing little or no risk to the community.

At the other extreme is the residential program that does its own job development and placement or training as well as providing in-house supportive services. It may also work with the clients' families and follow up after the client completes the program. An individual may remain in the program a year or more. This type of program is geared to those who need closer support or supervision and who need more time to develop new skills and patterns of behavior.

In between are comprehensive programs that use as many existing community services as possible rather than creating duplicate services.

B. Methods and Program

A comprehensive manpower service program includes, as stated earlier:

(1) Assessment of skills and abilities of the client
(2) Training in job hunting and in acquiring acceptable work attitudes
(3) Job training and basic education if necessary
(4) Job development and job placement
(5) Follow up with employee and employer after placement
(6) Other supportive services such as medical care or legal aid.

Assessment. Age, marital status, education, and previous job experience all affect one's expectation toward work. A model program will analyze these characteristics of its clients to determine their specific needs, as well as their aptitudes and abilities.

Manpower services seem to work most successfully for those in their early 20's who have not been able to get a job foothold but who have matured out of their teenage life style.

Client Goals. In a model program a client will make his own assessment and develop his own goals, based upon objective measurement and his own motivations and with any expert assistance that he needs. Some, of course, need more support than

others. For most, it is a new and difficult experience. Since most offenders tend to be individuals with low job skills, limited work experience, and poor work attitudes, job goals are rather limited initially if they are realistic. For those with the potential, skill levels must be significantly increased and high paying jobs with significant advancement opportunities sought.

The client-developed plan is a particularly important part of the pretrial intervention programs and other newly emerging community programs. The purpose accords with the recommendations of the National Advisory Commission on Criminal Justice Standards and Goals to encourage a sense of responsibility on the part of the offender, which in turn helps to promote a feeling of having some control over his own destiny.

Two assumptions underlay this direction: (1) A participant must bear responsibility for his own actions, and (2) a participant is able to determine the consequences of his own behavior. This relationship between the assumption of responsibility and success can be seen in the "mutual agreement programming" concept discussed in Chapter 2.

The model offender in a manpower service program may well conclude that his first goal is to develop a good employment record in an entry level job, which he can then build upon for obtaining higher level jobs. A good employment record shows that an employee is motivated and responsible.

Job Related Skills. A problem often reported in the evaluation of offender-employment efforts is a lack of success due to a failure to provide comprehensive job related services. The difficulty is knowing just how many and what type of services are required. Furthermore, the offender may be provided everything except the one thing he requires most, stable and rewarding employment. A model program emphasizes that getting and retaining a job requires learning job-related personnel policies and social skills such as arriving at work on time and getting along with co-workers. An offender will improve his ability to cope effectively with authority and respond satisfactorily to peers in such a program. In either an occupational training or job placement program, job-related training will be coordinated with relevant remedial education.

Job Development and Placement. The payoff of any manpower service is placement in a job. As the high unemployment rate of offenders indicates, follow-through to the placement stage is often lacking. Many offenders cannot get jobs on their own. When placements are made, they commonly entail low-paying jobs offering little other inducement to the offender. Only 5 to 10 percent of ex prisoners get help from the local employment service office in finding their first job, and almost none turn to it later in their careers. Less than a fourth of those who find jobs apply the work experience or training acquired in prison.

Placement efforts of ex offender programs vary from those in which the client is expected to develop his sense of responsibility by learning the search procedures for finding his own job, to those programs with job developers who furnish clients with lists of openings and make appointments for interviews, to which they may even accompany the client.

The extent to which a project should develop its own services or should rely on community services depends upon the situation. Projects have generally developed vocational training, personal and vocational counseling and educational components, leaving most other services to community agencies.

Chapters 2 and 3 describe some of the pros and cons of in-house job development and placement or centralized placement. Retaining the job development and job placement functions in house gives the program more control of its main function of getting people jobs. However, centralized placement seems to be working effectively in Des Moines and Louisville, which are medium-sized cities. It might be worthwhile to explore whether centralized placement, using all the manpower resources of the city most efficiently, may become less effective as the city reaches a certain size. Small communities often have no formal resources to command.

Follow Through. An effective project generally finds that a gradual phasing out of its assistance to an individual works better than an aburpt termination. More than one program administrator asserted during interviews that the hard part for the ex offender is not getting the job, but the social adjustment. For example, although a 3-month pretrial intervention period may be adequate to meet court demands and to present successful project dismissal statistics in a final report, it may not be time enough for offenders to learn to manage their problems. A lengthier project period for some offenders might increase long-term success.

There will be some disagreement on the optimum length of a program, but many agree that particularly for younger offenders peak effectiveness is reached at about 6 months and after that there will be a plateau or even retrogression. At a minimum, a

model program would attempt to work with a client until he shows an understanding of laternate methods of behavior and exhibits motivation toward changing his unsuitable ones.

In one program, 3 months before an inmate is to re-enter the community, an Advocate Counselor from a community multi-service center begins working with the offender on problems he may foresee hindering his reinstatement. This relationship continues for 9 months after release and the Advocate is available whenever his assistance is needed. He is the link between the returnee and the services available through the various components of this multi-service center.

C. Linkages

There has been a tendency for corrections to try to develop its own full array of services because it has been isolated from existing community resources. This has resuted in makeshift duplication and needless competition.

The over-all goal of manpower services is to connect the offender with the opportunity system of our society, creating a stake for him in the community. To do this, a model program would use all the economic, social, and financial resources in the community that it could muster. It would creat linkages with these resources through its staff, volunteers, and advisory boards to help an offender prepare himself to obtain and hold a job. The best community-based projects, aware of and structured for the needed linkages, have made extensive use of community agencies. In general, projects have used their staff as "advocates" for the offender before community agencies as specific needs have arisen and referral agents have tied specific community agencies into the project by a referral agreement or by stationing an agency representative at project headquarters.

Manpower projects for offenders and ex offenders will need information on: the population to be served; the community in which the project will operate and to which the offender will be released; the specific job market into which the offender will be released; and information on any other factors in or out of the community that will influence the project—such as what others are doing in conducting similar projects, or who can be of special help on the board of a project.

Early consultation is needed with those who are likely to have a decisive influence on the effectiveness of the project, or whether it will be conducted at all. It would be very difficult to conduct a pretrial intervention project, for example, without the concurrence, approval and cooperation of the courts and prosecutors. A MAP program will require approval of courts and corrections, and work by corrections and parole offices. Similarly, it would be very difficult to establish a halfway house in a community aroused in opposition to it. Contact with the local employment service, employers, and labor organizations is essential in a job placement program. Follow up will require close contact with parole officers, law enforcement agencies and employers, as well as with the client.

The range of organizations that can be drawn upon by an offender program is illustrated by a partial list from a South Carolina Department of Corrections annual report on Project Transition:

"Other manpower organizations have also worked closely during the year with the Project, including: the South Carolina CAMPS Committee (now called Area IV Manpower Planning Council), SCORE (U.S. Small Business Administration), the South Carolina CEP, The South Carolina Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, the U.S. Army Office of DOD Project Transition, Fort Jackson (a name likeness causing minor confusion), the State Office of OEO, the Columbia Housing Authority, the Mayor's Committee on Employment for the Handicapped (Columbia), the South Carolina Department of Labor, the Housing and Urban Development Agency (HUD).

D. A Final Word

Because the strength of any program lies in such factors as the competence of staff, the degree to which program activities are elaborated, the amount of public support, and the extent to which peer group values and traditions are respected, a new program cannot be expected to cope with the high risk offenders that it may be expected to accept as participants after the program has become well-established. The mark of a mature program is reflected in its ability continually to adapt its objectives and progressively take on less promising types of clients.

Above all, in any model program there will exist a mutual committment—on the part of the successful program participant, acceptance of responsibility for his own economic future and on the part of the community, responsibility for offering him an opportunity for that future.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLES OF ORIENTATION MATERIAL

FAIRFIELD HOUSE—WORK FURLOUGH PROGRAM

Fairfield House is operated by the Jacksonville/ Duval County Sheriff's Office as a Work Furlough Center. Program participants are allowed to leave Fairfield to work at their regular job. Program staff can acquire jobs for those who come to Fairfield unemployed.

Institution

The building was formerly an elementary school and is leased by the Sheriff's Office from the School Board. It is located in the Eastside section of Jacksonville adjacent to the Gator Bowl. Fairfield is only a short distance from downtown and bus lines.

Food service is available for three meals a day and bag lunches can be picked up daily. Linens are provided but laundry service is not. Inmates are encouraged to make arrangements with family for laundry service or they may handwash clothes.

Rooms are barracks style with approximately ten (10) bunks to a classroom. There is limited space for personal items; inmates are discouraged from bringing anything that is not essential. Televisions, a modest library, basketball and weights are available. Free time will generally be the inmates's own to use as he pleases *on the premises*.

Participants will be considered to be on trusty status while at Fairfield and will be expected to join in the maintenance of the facility as needed.

Program Policies

Fairfield should not be confused with an unregulated shelter type halfway house. The program is operated in full accord with state and municipal laws which permit clients to leave the premises for employment or educational purposes only.

In addition to fulltime employment, arrangements can be made for evening or parttime educational or therapeutic endeavors such as vocational training, adult education and alcoholics anonymous. Such supplemental programs will also be subject to rules and regulations of the program and will be at the expense of the client.

Inmate Money

All inmate earnings are turned over to the program account clerk. They are then disbursed for allowance, family support, payment of debt, restitution, etc., according to a plan established by the client with staff approval. Inmates generally receive $10.00 allowance per week and should not have more than that in their possession. Each person is charged $4.00 per working day for board.

Furloughs & Visitors

Unlike the state Work Release program there is no statutory provision for weekend furloughs for recreation and visiting under this program. Visiting at Fairfield is permitted on Sundays, and under special circumstances, during the week. Clients are not to visit while traveling to work or on the job.

Program Staff

The program is directed by Mr. Mike Berg. He is assisted by two Work Furlough Counselors, an account clerk, a secretary and several Correctional Officers. Officers are on duty at Fairfield at all times. The Work Furlough Office is open from 7:00 a.m. until 10:00 p.m. Tuesday through Thursday and until 6:00 p.m. on Monday and Friday.

Mail can be sent from and received at Fairfield House, 515 Victoria Street, Jacksonville, Florida 32202. The Work Furlough telephone number is 633-4084. Inmates shall not receive incoming calls except under emergency circumstances. Outgoing calls are permitted during Work Furlough office hours.

WORK FURLOUGH PROGRAM RULES AND REGULATIONS

OFFICE OF THE SHERIFF
JAILS & PRISONS DIVISION
WORK FURLOUGH PROGRAM
515 VICTORIA STREET
JACKSONVILLE, FLORIDA 32202
TELEPHONE: 633-4084

Inmate's Name _____ Release Date _____

Participation in the Work Furlough Program is a privilege and is designed primarily to help the inmate become re-established in Society.

The intent of the Work Furlough Law is that the inmate be confined except when actively engaged in his work program.

1. The inmate is to go each work day, directly from his place of confinement to the place of his employment, *by the approved method of transportation.*
2. He is to work diligently at his job and is NOT to leave his place of employment for any purpose unless he is authorized to do so by the Jails & Prisons Division, *in advance.*
3. Any unauthorized absences from the approved place of employment will subject the inmate to possible prosecution for ESCAPE as set forth under Florida Statutes 944.40. If the nature of his job requires him to leave his established place of employment or the employer desires to change his time schedule for work, the employer should make prior arrangements with the Jails & Prisons Division.
4. At the end of each work day, or if work ceases before the end of the scheduled work day, he is to return immediately and directly to his place of confinement. If scheduled transportation is not available, the employer or his representative should call Fairfield House (633-4084) for special instructions.
   Failure to return at the end of the working day will result in ESCAPE charges being filed. Maximum sentence is FIFTEEN (15) YEARS for ESCAPE, and must be in addition to any other sentence imposed.
5. The indulgence in alcohol or the use of narcotics is strictly forbidden and will result in the immediate removal of the inmate from the Work Furlough Program.
6. A Work Furlough inmate is entitled to the benefits under the Workman's Compensation Act. The method and expense of treatment for an injury should be handled the same as for other workers. If an inmate is injured off the job or becomes ill, on or off the job, and is not covered by Workman's Compensation or other insurance, the Jails & Prisons Division should be notified at once. He will be treated by the Jail Physician or sent to University Hospital. The Sheriff's Office cannot assume responsibility for medical or hospital expenses unless the above policies are followed.
7. Inmates will not be permitted to operate a motor vehicle unless written permission is obtained from Work Furlough. These inmates must have a valid Florida operator's license, current Florida license tag, valid state inspection decal and liability insurance before being given permission to operate a motor vehicle.
8. The Florida Industrial Commission exercises the same supervision over wages, hours and conditions of employment of all persons under this Program, as it does of other workers. Work Furlough inmates shall receive the same wages as other workers engaged in similar work.
9. Inmate's paycheck should be made payable to Dale G. Carson, Sheriff, and mailed to: Account Clerk, Work Furlough Program, 515

Victoria Street, Jacksonville, Florida, unless other arrangements are made. The ordinance provides that the entire earnings of the inmate, less only the statutory deductions *(Income and Social Security Taxes), are to* be turned over to the Sheriff. In addition to checks, inmates will turn in pay stub or comparable statement of deductions (This will be returned on release). The law does not provide for any deductions by the employer for a debt, advance to the inmate, or for any other purpose. When the Sheriff receives the check or case representing wages earned, it will be turned over to the Account Clerk where it will be placed in the inmate's Work Furlough Account. Any disbursements from this account will be made in this order for the following purposes:

A. The board of the prisoner is $4.00 per working day.

B. Necessary travel expense to and from work and other incidental expenses of the inmate (allowance).

C. Support of the prisoner's dependents, if any.

D. Payment, either in full or ratably, of the inmate's obligations acknowledged by him in writing or which have been reduced to judgment.

E. The balance, if any, to the inmate upon his discharge.

10. Inmate hereby agrees to waive extradition to the State of Florida from any state of the USA, the District of Columbia, or the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico.

11. Inmate will not quit or resign his job or substantially change the nature of his job without prior approval of Work Furlough Officer.

12. Lying to any person may result in immediate dismissal from Work Furlough. Inmates will be truthful at all times.

WHEN THE INMATE IS NOT TRUTHFUL OR DOES NOT FOLLOW THE ESTABLISHED WORK SCHEDULE, FAILS TO WORK DILIGENTLY, LEAVES THE PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT, TAKES A DRINK OF ANY ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGE, USES A NARCOTIC, OR IS ENGAGED IN ANY IMPROPER ACTIVITY, THE EMPLOYER IS RESPONSIBLE FOR NOTIFYING THE JAILS AND PRISONS DIVISION AT ONCE. PROMPT REPORTING OF AN INFRACTION FREQUENTLY PREVENTS MORE SERIOUS INVOLVEMENT BY THE INMATE.

Inmates under the Work Furlough Program will be granted the same privileges given to trusties and will abide by the general rules and regulations of the Jails and Prisons Division of the Office of the Sheriff.

I have read and understand the rules and regulations and I agree to abide by all terms and conditions of the Work Furlough Program as prescribed by the Sheriff, and applicable Federal, State and Municipal Laws.

_____ _____

Effective Date Inmate Signature

Subject is authorized $ _____ per week expense money and will not have over this amount on his person at any time.

He is to be released according to the following schedule:

Days: _____ Release at _____ and return at _____

RULES AND REGULATIONS THAT GOVERN CENTRAL CITY COMMUNITY CENTER

1. This is a Department of Corrections Facility operated by the Parole and Community Services Division for both Male and Female Inmates to participate in the Work Furlough and Education Furlough Program.
2. Role of Work Furlough Education Coordinator with respect to case services activities. The Work Furlough Coordinator is responsible for monitoring your program. Any information, Counselling, or Guidance you want should be made through your Coordinator. If the Work Furlough Coordinator cannot be contacted for your emergency needs the Staff on duty should be your next contact.
3. How to check out and in at the Center? When checking out of the Center you must stop by the Correctional Officer's desk, leaving your key and giving the Staff on duty the name, address and phone number of the person you are going to visit. If this information cannot be supplied you will not be allowed to check out. If you are checking out to work, tell Correctional Officer you are going to work and what time you are expected to return. If you are checking out of the Center for job interviews, obtain job interview itinerary form. You are allowed to check out for job interview at 7:00 a.m. and must return to the Center by 4:20 p.m. Saturday and Sunday interviews require prior approval by your Work Furlough Coordinator. When returning to the Center, go to the Correctional Officer's desk, so that the Correctional Officer can log your arrival and return your room key to you.
4. What clothing may be worn inside and outside the Center? PJ's, gowns, housecoats, smoking jackets are not allowed in the dining room or parking lot area. When in the living room or basement, shirts and pants or dresses must be worn.
5. What provisions exist for safeguarding valuables? The Center is not set up to store valuables; if you feel unsafe with them in your room they should be placed with your wife, family or friends.
6. Who may visit, how often, how long, when, where and what articles can be brought to the facility? Families and friends may visit 7 days a week between the hours of 8 a.m. to 12 p.m., in the Center living room or parking lot. Visitors are to be reminded that this is a State Facility and no firearms, alcohol or narcotics are permitted on the grounds.
7. Restriction on incoming and outgoing mail. You may receive and write letters. Your letters are not censored. If you want to write someone in another institution it has to be approved by that Institution head.
8. Restrictions on use of telephone. You may receive calls in your room through our switchboard. Phone number 747-5125 up until 12:00 midnight. No outgoing calls are made from your rooms. No inter-house calls are made from the switchboard. If you have a need to use a telephone after 12:00 midnight, you must utilize the public telephones that are available in the living room or the other one on the second floor.
9. Worktime Credits. Each job is defined. When you are given a permanent job or assigned a job for the day, upon completion of that job you will be given a total of 2 hours which will defray $3.00 of the $4.10 you are billed per day. Upon completion of the work assignment, you must get a staff member to sign a work credit slip for you so you can be given credit for the job.
10. Expectations regarding participation in educational, job interviews, employment and other activities. You will be expected to be on the job, in school or wherever your program indicates you to be. Your employer must be made aware of your status. You are reminded that this is work/vocational furlough and all residents must maintain gainful employment or have a vocational program to remain in this program. Your program will be verified twice a month by the Work Furlough Coordinator.
11. Medical, Dental, and Psychiatric resources available. Our resources are very limited. If you need emergency treatment try to secure it or ask the Work Furlough Coordinator for assistance. If

you find that the cost will be too much for you to handle, you will be returned to the Institution for medical treatment.

12. Meal Hours.

Monday through Friday

Breakfast	6:00 a.m. - 7:30 a.m.
Lunch	11:30 a.m. - 12:30 a.m.
Dinner	5:00 p.m. - 6:30 p.m.

Saturday, Sunday and Holidays

9:00 a.m. - 10:00 a.m. (Dining Hall)
3:00 p.m. - 4:00 p.m. (Dining Hall)
6:00 p.m. - 8:00 p.m. (½ hour pass for fast food take out)

If you find that on a continuous basis your program won't allow you to make these hours, you must make provisions to Staff or Work Furlough Education Coordinator so a meal can be saved for you. If you won't be able to return to the Center for lunch, a sack lunch will be made for you. You must notify the breakfast cook that you need a lunch. If you want a guest to have a meal with you, he or she must pay $1.00 for the meal ticket. You may purchase the tickets from the Correctional Officer at the front desk.

13. Linen Exchange. You will be given clean linen every Wednesday. You will be given linen on a one for one exchange. The linen you want exchanged must be stacked on your bed, if no linen is on bed, you won't be given any for that week. No linen is exchanged after 5:00 p.m.

14. Room and Board and Loans. You are billed $4.10 per day for room and board. This is payable at your convenience; but you must be reminded that this is your responsibility and it must be done. If you are in need of a loan, see your Work Furlough Education Coordinator who will assist you with your needs and requests. If a loan is granted, it will not exceed $25.00.

15. Checking out to Independent Residence. When you are ready to leave the Center to independent residence, the Correctional Officer will check your room before you depart for the following things:
    A. All drawers empty.
    B. Floor vacuumed.
    C. Bathroom and shower cleaned.
    D. Check to see if blankets and pillows are there.
    E. Closet cleaned out.

    You must have these things done before checking out.

16. Temporary Community Releases (Passes).
    A. You are not eligible for any pass until after 7 days.
    B. Residents are eligible for passes if they are employed or in a program.
    C. Weekend passes (Fri-Sat, Sun) must be requested in writing by Tuesday 9:00 a.m. prior to the weekend requested. Pass forms are at the Correctional Officer's desk. Weekend passes are not to exceed 36 hours. Evening passes are between the hours 6:00 p.m. to 11:00 p.m. If you are working at night you can take EP during the day between the hours of 8:00 a.m. and 1:00 p.m.
    D. When you want a 36-hour or evening pass you must provide the Correctional Officer with the name, address, and phone number of person to be visited.
    E. Pass time allowable to you is as follows:
        1. 90–60 days to parole advancement date, 60 hours.
        2. 59–31 days to parole advancement date, 96 hours.
        3. 30–0 days to parole advancement date, 144 hours.

        Pass time not used in any category *can not* be carried forward to next category.
    F. Dinner pass—For those residents whose programs delay their return to the Center for dinner the following procedure will be used. Residents will be given ½ hour to utilize fast food franchises located near the Center.
        1. Kentucky Colonel
        2. Jack in the Box
        3. McDonalds

17. Store Time.
    A. Residents will be allowed a maximum of 45 minutes for store shopping which comes out of your pass time.
    B. No one will be allowed to check out to the store after 8:15 p.m.
    C. Curfew is 11:00 p.m., everyone must be in the Center unless working on verified employment.

18. Church Time—
    The following residents are not permitted to check out for church.
    A. If weekend pass has been denied.
    B. One who is restricted to the Center.
    C. One who is out of pass time.

    If resident did not put in for pass and wants to

go to church he/she can, providing he/she has pass time.

Hours for church time are between the hours of 8:00 a.m.–1:00 p.m.

New arrivals are eligible for church time.

19. Rule Violation.

Any violations of the Center Rules and Regulations will result into either a CDC 128 or a CDC 115, of which you will receive a copy.

20. Boundaries.

A. For the safety of each resident, no one shall be allowed on the roof or fire escapes unless in an emergency situation declared by Center Staff.

B. No visiting between men and women in their respective rooms.

C. No resident is allowed behind the Correctional Officer desk or in the room where Switchboard is.

D. Central City Community Center boundary line extends from back of parking lot to the street, east and south.

E. Women are not allowed on 2nd, 3rd, and 4th floors. Men are not allowed on the 1st floor unless authorized.

21. Miscellaneous—

A. Room Inspections. Your room is inspected 2 times per week at the minimum.

B. Room Curfew. All residents must be in their room or in the lobby between the hours of 1:00 a.m.-5:00 a.m.

C. Electrical. Electric radio, clock and T.V. is allowed in your room. Electric coffee pot, hot plate or other electrical appliance is not allowed in your room. The electric plug must not be overloaded, one plug for one socket.

D. Cleaning Equipment and Supplies—
Vacuum cleaners may be checked out at the desk and cleaning supplies are available at the Correctional Officer desk.

E. Food goods are to be kept to a minimum, in your room, due to the possibility of "ants and rodents" problems.

GOAL PREFERENCE CHECK LIST

NAME_____

In addition to full time employment you may wish to take care of other business during your stay at Fairfield. Below is a list of activities. For each one you should check either yes or no. You may check as many or as few as you wish.

	Yes	*No*
1. SEE A LAWYER		
2. GET SOCIAL SECURITY CARD		
3. STOP DRINKING		
4. GET EYEGLASSES		
5. GET DRIVER'S LICENSE		
6. GET JOB		
7. LEARN A TRADE		
8. LEARN TO READ BETTER		
9. FINISH HIGH SCHOOL		
10. GET SOME TOOLS		
11. SEE A DOCTOR		
12. GET SOME CLOTHES		
13. MAKE PAYMENTS ON A BILL		
14. START COLLEGE		
15. STOP SMOKING		
16. LOSE WEIGHT		
17. GAIN WEIGHT		
18. SUPPORT MY KIDS		
19. STUDY THE BIBLE		
20. GET A BETTER JOB		
21. JOIN THE ARMY		
22. LEARN TO HANDLE MONEY BETTER		
23. SEE A DENTIST		
24. FIND PLACE TO STAY AFTER RELEASE		
25. GET A CAR		
26. LEARN MORE ABOUT G.I. BILL		
27. WORK OUT PROBLEMS WITH WIFE		
28. SAVE SOME MONEY		
29. SEE A COUNSELOR		
30. FIND OUT ABOUT A PARDON		
31. SPECIAL PERMISSION TO VISIT SICK RELATIVE		

REMARKS:_____

APPENDIX B

THE EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEW

(ROXBURY)

A. Greet Receptionist

1. Give your name and reason for visit.

   Example—"Good morning, my name is John Smith and I have a 10:00 a.m. employment interview with Mr. Jones."

2. Be punctual.

   Example—For a 10:00 a.m. interview, try being there by 9:30 or 9:45 a.m.

3. Be prepared to fill out an application.

   Example—(Refer to #2)—By arriving at 9:30 a.m. or 9:45 a.m., you can fill out an application and go in at 10:00 a.m. to see Mr. Jones.

4. Have a copy of your social security number, names of past jobs with addresses and dates, names of references with addresses, etc., written on a card to aid you in filling out the application.

5. Be prepared to take a test for the job you are applying for if required.

   Example—Electronic, clerical or industrials machines, etc.

6. Have a list of questions you wish to ask prepared.

   Example—
   a. How old is the company?
   b. How many employees are with the company?
   c. What is the potential for promotion and growth?
   d. What are the duties that the job entails?
   e. What is the starting salary?
   f. What is the top salary potential?
   g. What are the working hours?
   h. Is there paid overtime?
   i. What benefits are offered by the company.
   j. Does the company offer tuition for night school?
   k. Does the company promote from within?

B. Procedure for the Interviewer

1. Walk slowly and quietly, stand straight, hold your head up.
2. Greet the interviewer.
   a. Shake hands firmly if interviewer offers his hand.
   b. Look interviewer in the eye and say, "How do you do Mr. Jones."
   c. Stand until the interviewer asks you to be seated.
   d. Wait for the interviewer to start the interview and lead it.
   e. You may smoke if the interviewer states so.
   f. Be prepared to answer questions.
      Examples
      —Why do you want to work for this company?
      —Where do you see yourself in five years?
      —Are you planning to further your education?
      —What do you know about this company?
      —What is your current standing with the draft?
      —Do you have any particular skills or interests that you feel qualifies you for a position with this company?
      —What makes you feel you are qualified for this particular job?
      —Do you have any plans for marriage in the immediate future?

   Now is when you present your questions.

C. Attitudes and Behavior During the Interview

1. Sit up straight, feet on floor, hand in lap.
2. Sit quietly (do not keep moving around or fidget).
3. Use your best manners.
   a. Be attentive and polite.
   b. Speak slowly and clearly.
   c. Look interviewer in the eye (do not wear sunglasses).
   d. Use correct English, avoid slang.
   e. Emphasize your good points.
4. Speak of yourself in a positive manner.
5. Talk about what you can do.
6. Do not apologize for your shortcomings.
7. Do not talk to an excess about your personal problems.

D. What an Interviewer Sees Immediately During an Interview

1. Hygiene.

a. Bath just before an interview.
b. Clean and clip nails if necessary.
c. Brush teeth.
d. Use a good deodorant.
e. Wear an outfit that is clean and conservative regardless of the fashion trend or style.

E. Interviewer Closes the Interview

1. Do not linger when he indicates it is time to stop.
2. Be sure to thank the interviewer as you leave.

F. Staying on the Job

1. With the great shortage of available jobs, employers can afford to be highly selective in choosing an employee.
2. Accepting positions in related fields so when positions are re-opened, you will have first choice at these positions.
3. Continuing relationship with the Job Developer and Advocate/Counselor of the Roxbury Multi-Service Center's Community Corrections Program to help work out any problems which might arise once on the job.

IN CONCLUSION

Remember the four (4) A's.

1. Attendance.
2. Attitude.
3. Appearance.
4. Ability.

APPENDIX C

JOB APPLICATION FORMS

APPLICATION OF _____ DATE _____

- INSTRUCTIONS -

Please complete this application for employment and return it in the attached self-addressed envelope. We will acknowledge receipt of your application by mail. A member of our Personnel Department will contact you, should we desire to arrange for an interview. Thank you for your interest in Polaroid.

POLAROID CORPORATION

AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYER

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PERSONAL DATA

Last Name	First	Initial				Social Security Number	
Present Address	Street	City	State	Zip Code		Area Code Home Telephone	
Previous Address	Street	City	State			Height Ft. Inches	Weight
In case of emergency notify	Name	Address			Relationship	Phone No.	
Have you ever been employed by Polaroid? ☐ Yes ☐ No	If yes, when/where?						
Have you ever applied for work at Polaroid before? ☐ Yes ☐ No	If yes, when/where						
Have you ever received Workmen's Compensation for an industrial accident? ☐ Yes ☐ No	Explain:						
Have you had any serious or prolonged illness or operation in the past five years? ☐ Yes ☐ No	Explain:						
Citizen of U.S. ☐ Yes ☐ No	If not, do you intend to be? ☐ Yes ☐ No	Type of visa					
Have you ever had a security clearance denied? ☐ Yes ☐ No	Explain:						
Relatives or friends employed by Polaroid Give name and location:							
Position desired	Wage or salary range desired $						
What prompted your application to Polaroid? Advertisement ____ Name of Paper ____ Employment Agency ____ Name ____ Polaroid Employee ____ Name ____ Other ____ Specify							
Can you work any shift? ☐ Yes ☐ No If no, specify	A 7:00 - 3:30 ☐ Yes ☐ No B 3:00 - 11:30 ☐ Yes ☐ No	C 11:00 - 7:30 ☐ Yes ☐ No Day 8:00 - 4:30 ☐ Yes ☐ No	E Varied				

EDUCATION

SCHOOL OR COLLEGE (BEGIN WITH HIGH SCHOOL)	From Mo. Yr	To Mo. Yr	DEGREE AND DATE	MAJOR	AVERAGE GRADE

Academic Honors or Awards you received in School:

In which subjects are you most interested?

Extra Curricular Activities (include any offices held):

MILITARY DATA

Branch of service	From: Mo. Yr.	To: Mo. Yr.	Highest rank held		Draft classification
Reserve obligation: ☐ Yes ☐ No	If yes, specify:		☐ National Guard	☐ Active Reserve	☐ Standby Reserve — Expiration Date
Special military schools or training					

WORK EXPERIENCE

Please list all employment starting with present or most recent employer (include summer & part-time work)

Dates	Name & Address – Employer	1. Job Title 2. Department 3. Supervisor	Major Duties (Use back page if needed)	Wages	Reason for Leaving
From: To:		1. 2. 3.		Start $ per Final $ per	
From: To:		1. 2. 3.		Start $ per Final $ per	
From: To:		1. 2. 3.		Start $ per Final $ per	
From: To:		1. 2. 3.		Start $ per Final $ per	
From: To:		1. 2. 3.		Start $ per Final $ per	

REFERENCES

(Employment and school references desirable)

NAME	ADDRESS (Include phone number)	OCCUPATION

Do you authorize us to secure confidential reports on your character and ability from:
Your former employers: ☐ Yes ☐ No Other references: ☐ Yes ☐ No Your present employer: ☐ Yes ☐ No

STATEMENT BY APPLICANT

It is agreed that any misrepresentation by me on this application, or any unfavorable facts determined by investigation, will be sufficient cause for dismissal from the company's service if I am employed. I consent to taking a pre-employment physical and realize that my hiring is conditional upon satisfactory completion of that physical. I agree to wear or use protective clothing or devices as required by the company and to comply with the safety rules. If necessary, I agree to read and sign an employment agreement form concerning, among other items, patent and product information disclosure clauses.

Applicant's Signature _____ Date _____

(over)

Please state below any facts or details concerning your experience and training which explain more fully your qualifications for the employment for which you are applying. List patents, publications and technical societies. If applying for secretarial or clerical positions, give typing and shorthand speeds, office equipment skills, etc.; for trade positions, indicate if licensed.

DO NOT WRITE BELOW THIS LINE

INNER CITY, INCORPORATED

716 COLUMBUS AVENUE
ROXBURY, MASSACHUSETTS 02120
TELEPHONE: (AREA CODE 617) 445-6613

APPLICATION FOR EMPLOYMENT

A SUBSIDIARY OF

POLAROID CORPORATION

STATEMENT BY APPLICANT

It is agreed that any misrepresentation by me on this application, will be sufficient cause for dismissal from Inner City, Inc. if I am employed. I consent to taking a pre-employment physical and realize that my hiring is conditional upon satisfactory completion of that physical. I agree to wear or use protective devices as required by the Company and to comply with the safety rules.

LAST NAME	FIRST	INITIAL	FEMALE ☐ MALE ☐	SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER
PRESENT ADDRESS: STREET	CITY	STATE	ZIP CODE	HOME TELEPHONE NUMBER
PREVIOUS ADDRESS: STREET	CITY	STATE	ZIP CODE	HEIGHT FT IN / WEIGHT

ARE YOU A U.S. CITIZEN ☐ YES ☐ NO — IF NO GIVE ALIEN CARD NUMBER

IN CASE OF AN EMERGENCY NOTIFY — NAME / ADDRESS — TELEPHONE NUMBER / RELATIONSHIP

CIRCLE HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED — GRADE SCHOOL 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 — HIGH SCHOOL 9 10 11 12

EDUCATION		DATES	SCHOOL NAME	CITY & STATE	COURSE	DID YOU GRADUATE
	HIGH SCHOOL	FROM / TO				YES ☐ NO ☐
	OTHER	FROM / TO				YES ☐ NO ☐

PLEASE LIST ANY OTHER TRAINING SKILLS, HOBBIES, AND MACHINES YOU CAN OPERATE

HAVE YOU EVER FILLED OUT AN APPLICATION AT INNER CITY BEFORE YES ☐ NO ☐

HAVE YOU EVER BEEN EMPLOYED AT INNER CITY BEFORE YES ☐ NO ☐

IF YES, WHEN _____ REASON FOR LEAVING _____

HAVE YOU EVER BEEN EMPLOYED AT POLAROID BEFORE YES ☐ NO ☐

IF YES, WHEN _____ REASON FOR LEAVING _____

MILITARY

BRANCH OF SERVICE	FROM	TO	HIGHEST RANK HELD	DISCHARGE
	MO_____ YR_____	MO_____ YR_____		HONORABLE_____ OTHER_____

SPECIAL SCHOOLS OF TRAINING

WHAT SHIFT CAN YOU WORK? (CHECK TWO)	A 7:00- 3:30	☐ YES	☐ NO
	B 3:00-11:30	☐ YES	☐ NO
	C - 11:00- 7:30	☐ YES	☐ NO

WORK EXPERIENCE

	PLEASE LIST ALL EMPLOYMENT STARTING WITH PRESENT OR MOST RECENT EMPLOYER				
DATES	NAME & ADDRESS - EMPLOYER	1. JOB TITLE 2. DEPARTMENT 3. SUPERVISOR	MAJOR DUTIES	WAGES	REASON FOR LEAVING
FROM TO		1 2 3		START $ PER FINAL $ PER	
FROM TO		1 2 3		START $ PER FINAL $ PER	

APPLICANT'S SIGNATURE_____ DATE_____

EMPLOYMENT APPLICATION

People are our most important asset . . . . . .

Since people are the key to achievement of our business objectives, people constitute our most important asset. It is the policy of The [redacted] to seek and employ the best qualified people in all of our facilities and locations, to provide equal opportunities for the advancement of employees, including upgrading, promotion and training, and to administer these activities in a manner which will not discriminate against any person because of race, color, religion, sex, age or national origin.

PLEASE PRINT

PERSONAL HISTORY

NAME (FIRST) MIDDLE INITIAL LAST SOCIAL SECURITY NO.

ADDRESS (NO. & STREET) CITY STATE ZIP CODE TELEPHONE NO.

HOW LONG HAVE YOU LIVED AT ABOVE ADDRESS? LAST PREVIOUS ADDRESS (NO. & STREET) CITY STATE ZIP CODE

IN CASE OF EMERGENCY, NOTIFY (PERSON'S NAME)

1 ☐ RELATIVE ☐ FRIEND

ADDRESS (NO. & STREET) CITY STATE ZIP CODE TELEPHONE NO.

IN CASE OF EMERGENCY, NOTIFY (PERSON'S NAME)

2 ☐ RELATIVE ☐ FRIEND

ADDRESS (NO. & STREET) CITY STATE ZIP CODE TELEPHONE NO.

MEDICAL HISTORY

Do you now have or have you ever had:

	YES	NO
ARTHRITIS		
ASTHMA		
BACK TROUBLE		
BLOOD IN URINE		
CANCER		
DIABETES		
EPILEPSY		

	YES	NO
FAINTING SPELLS		
HEART TROUBLE		
HERNIA		
HIGH BLOOD PRESSURE		
JAUNDICE		
NERVOUS BREAKDOWN		
RHEUMATIC FEVER		

	YES	NO
SHORTNESS OF BREATH		
SKIN RASHES/ECZEMA		
STOMACH ULCER		
SWELLING OF LEGS OR ANKLES		
TUBERCULOSIS		
URINATION DIFFICULTIES		
VARICOSE VEINS		
VENEREAL DISEASE		

HAVE YOU EVER BEEN REJECTED FROM THE MILITARY SERVICE FOR MEDICAL REASONS? ☐ ☐

HAVE YOU EVER BEEN DISCHARGED FROM THE MILITARY SERVICE FOR MEDICAL REASONS? ☐ ☐

HAVE YOU RECEIVED OR CLAIMED WORKMAN'S COMPENSATION OR OTHER FORM OF DISABILITY INSURANCE IN THE LAST 5 YEARS ☐ ☐

DATE & NATURE OF LAST ILLNESS

DATE & NATURE OF LAST ACCIDENT

DO YOU HAVE ACCESS TO A CAR? ☐ YES ☐ NO

HAVE YOU EVER BEEN IN THE MILITARY SERVICE? ☐ YES ☐ NO

HAVE YOU EVER BEEN CONVICTED FOR ANY CRIME WITHIN THE LAST FIVE (5) YEARS? (NOT TRAFFIC VIOLATIONS, FOR EXAMPLE, SPEEDING, PARKING)

DISPOSITION: (INCLUDE ANY SUSPENDED SENTENCE, PROBATION OR FINES AND DATES)

FORM NO. [redacted] REV. 2-78

LIST ALL SCHOOLING & EDUCATION

BOTH HIS

A				
B				
C				

OTHER WORK EXPERIENCE

PHARMACISTS ONLY

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION & REFERENCES

I understand that I must meet the physical requirements for the position. If required, I agree to submit to a physical examination by a physician designated by the Company. I also understand that any employment is contingent upon satisfactory references from previous employers. I certify that the statements made on this application are true, complete, and correct and further agree that such statements may be investigated and if found to be false will constitute sufficient reason for my dismissal and further agree to work safely and to abide by the rules and policies of the Company.

Applicant's Signature _____ Date _____

Comments by Interviewer _____

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE PLANNING CHARTS

Gantt Charts

The Gantt technique of scheduling was developed in the 1880's for repetitive production scheduling showing planned and actual performance. The system can be adapted for nonrepetitive operations and is an often used tool in planning and for display of plans. A sample Gantt planning schedule is shown in Figure D–1. It is in essence a series of bar graphs. A variation of the Gantt chart is the "milestone" chart that indicates critical events.

Network Charts (PERT)

Network charts are also useful planning tools and may be used in conjunction with Gantt charts. The network charts do not make as clear a display but are more useful when integrating planning tasks; networks show task interdependence. The network charts are related to the Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT) and the Critical Path Method of schedule planning. An abbreviated sample network is shown in Figure D–2. The paths (arrows) in the network indicate activities; the nodes between paths sections (circles, squares, polygons) indicate events such as the ending or start of an activity. The network chart is usually part of a larger system of planning and implementation such as that shown in Figure D-3.

References

Additional information on design and use of Gantt charts, networks, Critical Path Method, and PERT can be found in most libraries, usually under business administration, planning, and scheduling.

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ACTIVITY	ACTIVITY CODE NO.	MAN HOURS	APRIL				MAY			
			1	8	15	22	29	6	13	20
Establish objectives	A–1	(40)								
Develop preliminary concepts	B–1	(40)								
Determine information needs	C–2	(10)								
Collect data	E–1	(80)								
Analyze data	F–1	(80)								
Refine objectives and concept	B–5	(20)								
Develop evaluation concept	G–1	(40)								
. . . . .										
. . . . .										
. . . . .										
. . . . .										

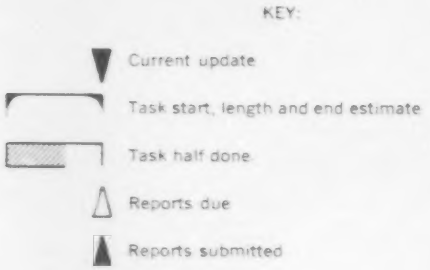
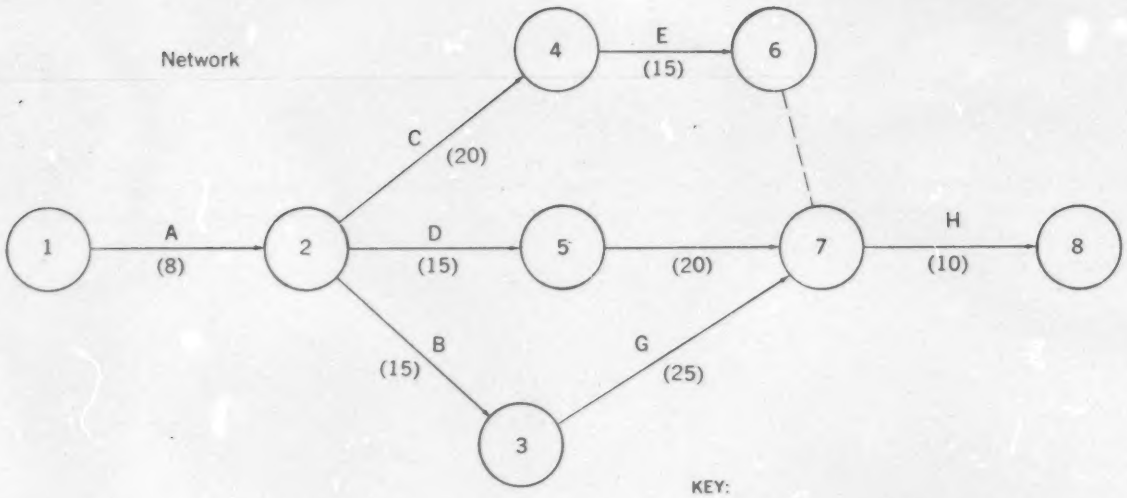


Figure D–1. Sample Gantt Planning Chart (Abbreviated)



Activity	Elapsed Time
A	8
B	15
C	20
D	15
E	15
F	20
G	25
H	10

KEY:

X
(n) — Activity X: time (n)

No activity; no time

Event

NOTE: Top path (ACEH) – 53
Center path (ADFH) – 53
Bottom path (ABGH) – 58

The bottom path is the critical path because it takes longest to complete. If that path can be reduced to 53, the network would be balanced with no slack time.

Figure D–2. Sample Network Chart Schematic Diagram

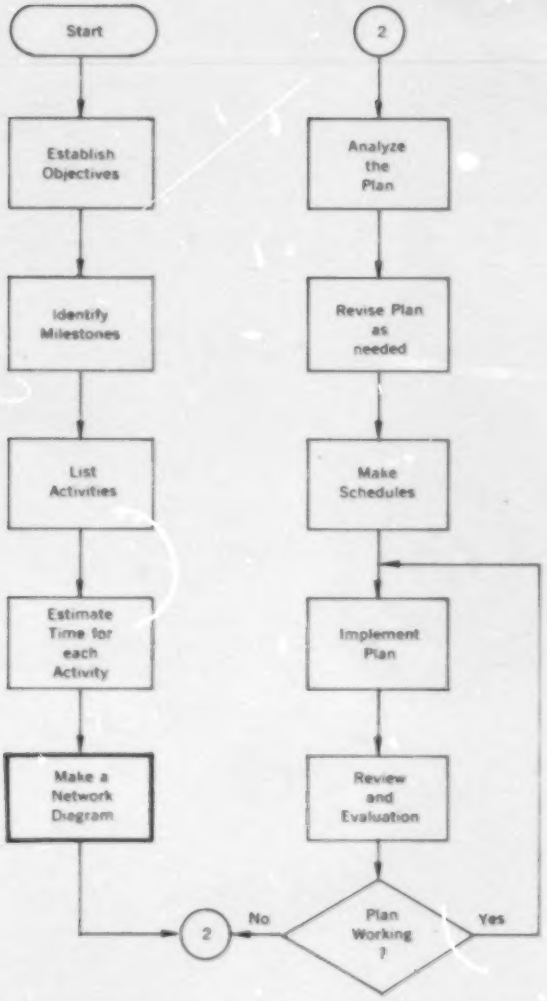


Figure D–3. Program Evaluation and Review Technique Planning Phases

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE DETERMINATION OF STAFF REQUIREMENTS

I. Assumptions:

(1) Staff is on a 40 hour week and 50 weeks a year.
(2) The average time spent by an offender in the project is 60 days.
(3) The follow-up period after leaving the project is 1 year.
(4) The activity is covered by at least two staff members 24 hours a day, 7 days a week.
(5) Average follow-up time per participant is estimated as 8 hours per year.
(6) Individual counseling is 2 hours a week, 8 hours a month.
(7) Group counseling is 2 hours a week per group of 10 participants.
(8) Counselor administration time is ½ hour per hour of counseling.
(9) The intake into the project is estimated as 300 offenders a year.

II. Planning Calculations:

(1) Mean daily population in the project:
  (a) (300 per year) x (60 days each) = 18000 man days.
  (b) (18000 man days) / (365 days per year) = 50 people average daily population in project.
(2) Follow-up work load:
  (a) None being followed up at start and a maximum of 300 being followed after a year, therefore maximum average number followed up the first year is 150. In the second year the maximum annual load is 300.
  (b) The maximum possible follow-up load the first year is estimated as follows

Month	*On follow-up*	*Month*	*On follow-up*
1	0	7	150
2	25	8	175
3	50	9	200
4	75	10	225
5	00	11	250
6	125	12	275–300

  (c) Actual follow-up loads will be smaller because of attrition in the population being followed.
(3) Number of counselors needed for project:
  (a) Individual counseling time
  = 50 x 2 hrs. per wk.
  = 100 hrs. per wk.
  (b) Group counseling time = (50 men/10 per group) x 2 hrs. per wk. = 10 hrs. per wk.
  (c) Total = 100 + 10 = 110 hrs. per week.
  (d) Counselor admin. time = ½ of 110 = 55 hrs.
  (e) Total time = 110 + 55 = 165
  165 hrs./40 hrs./wk. = 4 counselors needed.
  NOTE: An alternative system is to determine the proper case load and divide it into the mean daily population. If someone has established the case load as 10 to 1, a group of 50 needs 5 counselors.
(4) Number of counselors needed for follow-up activity.
  (a) Maximum possible follow-up time the first year is (150 men) x (8 hrs. per man) = 1200 mhr.
  (b) Number of people needed for follow up is (1200 mhr/1824 hrs. per year) = 0.67 or 1 person.
  (c) Toward the end of the year the number under follow up will stabilize. If follow-up is 8 hrs. per year per man a maximum of 2400 man hours follow up would be required. Since many of the follow-up population will be lost the load should be much less and one person may be able to handle it, but he would need some help or put in a lot of overtime since 50 weeks at 40 hrs. per week gives only 2000 hrs.

III. From the above the planners can estimate that the project will need about 5 or 6 people for counseling and follow up, a ratio of about 10 to 1.

APPENDIX F

CRITERIA AND RATING SCALE FOR HIRING OFFENDERS

CRITERIA AND RATING SCALE FOR HIRING OFFENDERS

1. The criteria used by the Boston Court Resource Project for hiring ex offenders for advocate positions in a pretrial intervention project was
   (a) A man who had served time in prison and who had been out of prison for at least a year.
   (b) One who had demonstrated responsibility in previous job(s).
   (c) An above-average intelligence.
   (d) An ability to establish rapport with varying types of people easily. (This would include a flexibility of approach, warmth, and sensitivity.)
   (e) A strong commitment to human services, with some related work experience.
   (f) No recent (two years) drug history.
   (g) Demonstrated responsibility in financial obligations and stable personal life.
   (h) Ability to articulate, and sufficient education (or equivalent) to do narrative reporting.
   (i) History of personal counseling and a positive attitude toward treatment methods and toward professionals.
   (j) Freedom from prejudices and judgmental attitudes.
   (k) Maturity, good judgment, and self-awareness.
2. Based upon the criteria shown above a rating scale was devised with adjectival and numerical values. The applicant was rated in each area and points given were summed. The minimum acceptable level was + 15 points. The "gut reaction" of the interviewers to the applicant also carried some weight that was not qualified but could overrule the scale results. The rating scale was as follows

Age	24–32	+½ pt.		Over 0 pt.
Health	Good	+1		Poor –1
Education (Reporting)	Good	+½	Fair +½	Poor –1
Family life	Good	+2	Fair +1	Poor –1
Finances (Mgr. Responsibility)	Good	+1		Poor –1
Has Auto	Yes	+1		No 0
Drug History	Over 2 yrs.	+0	Only 1 yr. –1	Under 1 yr. –3
Personal Habits	Good	+1	Fair +½	Poor –1
Work History	Good	+1½	Fair +½	Poor –0
Prejudices (Race, Judicial)	Yes	–2	Fair –1½	Poor –½
Flexibility	Good	+1½	Fair +½	Poor –1½
Attitude regarding system	Healthy	+½	Fair +½	Poor –1½
"Warmth"	Good	+2	Fair +1	Poor –2
Ability to articulate	Good	+2	Fair +1	Poor –2
Commitment	Good	+3	Fair +1½	Poor –1

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SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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To help LEAA better evaluate the usefulness of Prescriptive Packages, the reader is requested to complete and return the following questions.

1. What is your general reaction to this Prescriptive Package?

☐ Excellent ☐ Above Average ☐ Average ☐ Poor ☐ Useless

2. Does this package represent best available knowledge and experience?

☐ No better single document available
☐ Excellent, but some changes required (please comment)
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☐ Does not represent best knowledge or experience (please comment)

Comments:

3. To what extent do you see the package as being useful in terms of: (Check one box on each line)

	Highly Useful	Of Some Use	Not Useful
Modifying existing projects	☐	☐	☐
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Administering on-going projects	☐	☐	☐
Providing new or important information	☐	☐	☐
Developing or implementing new projects	☐	☐	☐

4. To what specific use, if any, have you put this particular package?

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C. Objectivity

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6. How did this package come to your attention? (check one or more boxes)

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- ☐ County
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- ☐ Regional SPA Office
- ☐ College/University
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- ☐ Commercial/Industrial Firm
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